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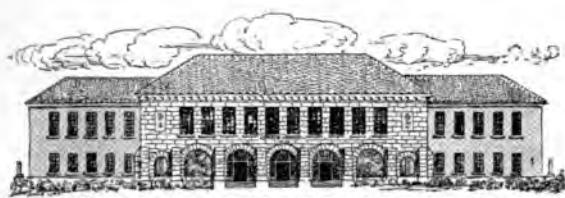
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PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING
OF THE
NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION
OF
COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

*Held in the Banqueting Hall of the Auditorium
Hotel, Chicago, Illinois, March 29 and 30, 1901.*

ANN ARBOR
PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION
PRINTED BY THE ANN ARBOR PRINTING COMPANY
1901

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EDITED BY
FRED NEWTON SCOTT
SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION

THE NORTH CENTRAL
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Copies of the Proceedings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools may be obtained by addressing the Treasurer of the Association, Mr. George N. Carman, Lewis Institute, Chicago. The price of single copies is twenty-five cents. The price of the complete set (seven numbers, including the Report of the Preliminary Meeting for Organization) is \$1.25.

The next meeting of the Association will be held in Cleveland, Ohio, Friday and Saturday, March 28 and 29, 1902.

MANUAL OF INFORMATION

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The sixth annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was held in the Banqueting Hall of the Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, on Friday and Saturday, March 29 and 30, 1901.

FIRST SESSION, FRIDAY MORNING.

The Association was called to order at 10:30 a. m. by the President, Mr. George B. Aiton, of Minneapolis. In his opening remarks President Aiton congratulated the Association upon the number in attendance. That so many persons could be brought together only a short time after the meetings of the University Association and of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, was a surprising fact. It could be explained, he thought, by the peculiarly fortunate conditions under which the Association was organized—by the homogeneity of its membership, by the compactness of the territory, and by the earnestness and intelligence with which all classes of people in this part of the country devoted themselves to educational problems. These were conditions which in combination were not enjoyed to the same extent in any other group of states in the Union.

The Treasurer of the Association, Mr. George N. Carman, of Chicago, submitted his report:

RECEIPTS.

Balance on hand, March 30, 1900.....	\$144.21
Fees since March 30, 1900.....	<u>300.00</u>
Total receipts for the year.....	\$444.21

PROCEEDINGS OF THE

DISBURSEMENTS.

Stenographer	\$ 40.00
Postage and express	11.82
Printing Proceedings of 1898	200.00
Printing Proceedings of 1900	101.25
Printing and stationery	<u>14.75</u>
Total expenditures for the year	<u>\$367.82</u>
Balance on hand March 29, 1901.....	<u>\$ 76.39</u>

The President of the Association then appointed the following committees:

1. To determine the time and place of the next meeting of the Association: President George E. MacLean, Principal Edward L. Harris, President William H. Black.
2. To nominate officers: Dean E. A. Birge, President Cady Staley, Principal William J. S. Bryan.
3. To audit the Treasurer's report: Professor W. W. Beman, Principal William H. Smiley, Principal C. W. French.

The reading of papers was then begun.

WHAT DETERMINES FITNESS FOR ENTRANCE TO COLLEGE?

BY PROFESSOR A. ROSS HILL, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA.

I think no one will be inclined to dispute the proposition that a student's fitness to enter upon a college course depends upon his ability to grapple with the intellectual problems incident to its work, and upon his fitness to share in the social and moral heritage of a college community. Assuming farther that this social and moral qualification will be regarded by all as a necessary entrance requirement, I take my problem to be that of stating the intellectual conditions which the colleges must impose upon all who seek admission to their beginning classes.

So long as the college course itself was the same everywhere and for everybody, the matter of entrance requirements was scarcely a subject for discussion. It was only necessary to know how much Latin, Greek and Mathematics could safely be demanded; for, since they were the only subjects studied during the first two years of the college course, entrance conditions were naturally stated in terms of the quantity and quality of work already done in these branches. But with

the broadening and enriching of the college course itself, and the greater freedom of study within its range, has come the problem of entrance requirements. This has been made still more serious from the demand on the part of the public and some leading educators that the courses in secondary schools be planned primarily with reference to the majority who do not go to college, rather than in the interests of the few who do. I believe that we can most easily solve the problem in question by leaving aside subject matter for a moment, and considering first what constitutes intellectual power such as all are agreed in demanding of entrance classes. After that has been subjected to analysis, we may with fewer prejudices and a clearer insight return to the question as to what subjects, if any, should be specified as requirements.

What, then, are the chief factors that contribute to intellectual power, so far, of course, as that power is an acquisition of experience and not to be attributed to native genius? One factor, I think, is *information*, or knowledge of facts. This element is made prominent in the educational literature of our day by a frequent appeal to the mental activity known as "Apperception." This term stands for the fact that each new bit of information which the mind appropriates is assimilated by being brought into relation with other facts already in the mind. The botanist assimilates rapidly and easily new facts in regard to plant life because he already has a store of ideas of that order to which he may relate each new comer; the political economist readily gets his bearings in the midst of facts which, to the man without his special knowledge would remain but a chaos of assertion and inference; and similarly in every field of knowledge.

Such information may be of a more or less fundamental character. Some facts seem to have little significance beyond themselves, others are seen to be fraught with a wealth of meaning for human life. Now the more fundamental the facts the more important is their function in contributing to mental power. Yet it must be remarked that facts which from one point of view seem trivial, become fundamental from another. A good Latin vocabulary would not be regarded as fundamental for the study of electrical engineering, but becomes so at once if the engineer's business forces him to master French. So that the fact remains, information is an element in intellectual power.

Is it the only or even the most important factor? Some

have been inclined to disregard it almost entirely as a matter of little consequence compared to what is called "discipline," and to insist that while certain studies convey to the mind little information of value, they do discipline the mind and give it power. Others, while regarding discipline as important, claim that all subjects are equally disciplinary and that consequently the only consideration in making up a school curriculum is, what subjects contain the most important information relative to life's duties and needs. Evidently the concept of discipline needs analysis or restatement.

The doctrine of discipline, as usually held, consists in the idea that the mind can store up force in a few subjects which can be used with efficiency in any department in life. As thus conceived the doctrine is certainly not valid, at any rate not in such sweeping terms as are usually employed in its advocacy. Let us look at analogies in the physiological sphere. The effect of exercise of a special set of muscles will be of two kinds, specific and general. The specific effect, i. e., the effect upon the muscles employed, will be available for the same and all similar activity of the muscular system, but only to a very limited degree for muscular action of unlike kinds. Only in so far as this exercise tones up and energizes the whole body can it be said to produce a general effect which will be available for all sorts of muscular exertion. Turning now to the mental life, we may say similarly that the training any particular exercise of mental function will yield can be available only for similar exercises in the future. To acquire facility in memorizing lists of words would not be to develop the power to remember facts from the physical sciences, or from history. There is no memory that takes up everything indifferently, hence memory-training in the ordinary sense of the term is impossible. So there is no general power of observation. One is observant of faces, another of manners, while others still pay more attention to facts of physical nature and little to human life. What has been said of memory and observation may be said of the other mental functions. There is the imagination of the scientist, of the artist, and of the practical man. The reasoning of mathematics is not the only form in which reason is called upon to discover or demonstrate truth.

Thus it appears that the doctrine of mental discipline in the crude form in which it is held by the average school man must be given up. "No one kind of mental exercise—no few

kinds—can develop the whole mind. That end can be obtained only through many and varied activities."¹ As to the discipline secured through the study of any one branch, we may say, just as was aid of the exercise of one set of muscles, that its effect is largely special and is available only for similar mental activity in the study of similar subjects, but that in addition there is probably a relatively small general effect which might be called the "toning up" of the whole mind, which seems to accompany all healthy exercises of mental functions and not to be produced by any special sort of mental activity.

But having rejected the doctrine of discipline in its crude form, it becomes me to point out the element of truth it contains, which has led so many to believe in it, which has made it a powerful weapon in the hands of the Scholastics and the Humanists in turn, and which now is tempting many to use it in behalf of science against the encroachments of history, political economy and English literature. Let us, then, ask what mental possession can be secured from the study of a subject like Latin, for instance, which will be available in the mastery of other branches, which will yield the mind a clue to the interpretation of other phenomena in the life of man and nature. Well, we have already seen that Latin yields *information* of great service in the study of closely related languages like French and English. But the claim is made, and I believe it is well founded, that this is not the only or even the most important effect of Latin study under the guidance of a good teacher. It is claimed that besides the information which is an aid in the study of closely related languages, the student of Latin has received an equipment available for the mastery of relatively unrelated subjects such as physics and biology. If so, what can it be?

I believe that it can be nothing else than the *habits of thought and study* which are developed in the pursuit of Latin. If this is true, then the study of Latin has a two-fold service to perform for the student who is to take up other languages. He gets from Latin not only information but also habits of thought that are akin to those needed in taking up other languages. When, however, from Latin he turns to biology his earlier acquired information avails him little, but his mental habits may be just those of greatest availability for the new study. In so far as they are so available, he has had his

¹ Hinsdale: *Studies in Education*, p. 59.

mind disciplined in advance for the study of biology. But if his acquired mental habits are not of service in the new field, then I claim he has received practically no benefit from Latin so far as biological study is concerned. Just so far, then, as the habits of thought developed by one study are available in the pursuit of others, so far the first study may be said to discipline the mind for the others, this quite apart from the similarity of the studies in information content. I conclude that the formation of habits of thought and study makes an important contribution to the development of intellectual power.

Once more, as in the case of facts of information, we must note that there are limitations to the availability of some mental habits, while others are almost universally available. The latter we may call fundamental habits, and these we shall certainly regard as more important, for the purpose of this discussion at least. To take the subject of psychology as an instance, I think it might be said to encourage a habit of critical analysis of the conditions under which phenomena arise, which is about the same as that which characterizes much of the thinking in sociology, history, political economy, biology and even physical sciences and languages. This habit is then fundamental, but the special direction which observation takes in the study of that subject, the introspective habit of analyzing one's own states of consciousness is not always conducive to and may, if strongly fixed, even be a hindrance to more objective study.

Here, incidentally, we hit upon another important truth entirely lost sight of by the advocates of formal discipline, viz., that prolonged study of one branch may even unfit the student for taking up other work and adapting himself readily to it, because his mental habits become so thoroughly fixed, his mind so bent to a certain mould, that the power of ready adaptability, usually characteristic of young minds, is already practically gone, and the student doomed to specialize still farther in a subject for which he has no special ability. Such a student, after nibbling at a few studies, to the extent of one semester each, finally decides that he was designed from all eternity to specialize in a subject which the high school curriculum had forced upon him for four years and the college for one or two more. From this it appears that, while the thought habits acquired in school years are essential elements in intellectual power, yet the only habits that should be thoroughly fixed in youth are those of such general availability

that they will never need to be uprooted at a later stage of growth to make room for the development of others. This, I take it, is one of the main reasons why early specialization is not desirable.

Connected with the two elements in intellectual power above mentioned and to some extent depending upon them, is *interest*. Other things being equal, that student whose interest in intellectual pursuits has been most thoroughly awakened will be the best fitted to enter upon a college course.

So far our analysis of intellectual power has revealed three important factors—*information, habits, interest*—and these will suffice for the purposes of the present discussion. That student is fit to enter upon a college course whose previous training has given him information that will prove fundamental for his farther study, has fixed or at least begun the development in him of the most generally available habits of thought and action; and has called forth and developed an interest in all that relates to nature, man and God. If a student of such equipment seeks admission to college he should be accepted, it matters not whether he has acquired it in school or on the farm, in the study of languages and mathematics, or of science, English and history.

Turning now to consider the branches of instruction, certain conclusions naturally follow from the positions above taken:

First. I think that an analysis of the branches commonly taught in the high school—foreign languages, mathematics and its numerous applications, science, history and English—while it will not reveal that they are all of equal value as estimated by the criteria above mentioned, yet will show that each has a peculiar value and can scarcely be omitted from a course designed to prepare the student for college. Other branches, such as manual training and political economy, could also establish an equal claim to recognition, so that the number of studies is increased to a point which makes selection from among them almost a necessity. Here two dangers are to be avoided. On the one hand, the course must not be too narrow; for in that case the interests would not be sufficiently stimulated, the information gained would probably prepare for but few lines of study in college, and the fundamental habits of thought developed would present too little diversity, while certain habits peculiar to the pursuit of a few studies would become too thoroughly fixed, interfering with the student's adaptability to other lines of work. On the

other hand, there is danger in the opposite extreme of variety; for when the subjects are carried for only one semester each little information of value is acquired by the student, permanent interests in studies are not developed, and the time is not sufficient to provide for the growth of habits. A symmetrical training would thus seem to prepare the student best for a modern college course, and this can often be secured by the selection of "typical" branches to represent all the great fields of human knowledge. Supposing this is done, I do not see why we college men need specify just the amount of any one of these branches which we shall demand. That is a matter of detail which we can well afford to leave to the men in charge of secondary education. This is especially true in case of those institutions which employ a high school inspector. Once having placed the school on the list of "Fully Accredited" on his advice, the college should waste no more time in figuring out the amount of credit to be allowed for this and that branch, but admit to full freshman standing all students who present a diploma from that school.

Second. It is evident that the entrance examination is a much better test of information than of the interest and habits of thought. It cannot be anything like an adequate test for all sources of intellectual power. If the authorities of a college know the personnel of a high school faculty they are much better prepared to judge of the ability of its graduates to pursue college studies than they can be merely from reading their examination papers. Once more, then, the high school inspector's recommendation of a school should solve the problem of entrance credits for its students.

Third. If there is any exception that should be made to this rule, I think it must be in reference to the English requirements, and that on the basis of the factor that I have called habit. While the thought habits can be established during the college course, the speech habits are almost fixed by the time the student enters college, and it might be an aid to greater care in preparation if colleges should refuse to accept credits in that subject, and insist upon personal demonstration by the student of his ability to speak correct English. I do not advocate such a measure, for I fear that it would not be workable; but I wish to say that the common method of requiring undergraduate work in English with a view of leading students to speak correctly is bound to be to a large extent ineffective. That result must be accomplished earlier if at all.

Fourth. Students frequently leave the secondary school

before the completion of the course to engage in business or other callings. Should such a student later decide to take a college course, how utterly inane it would be for the college authorities to "haggle" over three or four points that are incomplete, provided that he has shown himself capable of efficient work and of intelligence in the calling pursued. Yet such a spectacle may be witnessed at the opening of each year in many colleges of the country. In cases where a diploma from a secondary school is not accepted as a whole but points are computed in various subjects, such persons might be taken care of by a scheme permitting "general credits" to the extent of three or four points, to be given at the discretion of the college officer whose duty it is to attend to entrance conditions.²

In conclusion, let me say that I am in hearty sympathy with the view that the secondary school has its own functions to perform and that it is liable to be side-tracked from its own proper work if it listens to the demands of college men who are enthusiasts for their own specialties. Not that the high school and college should work in isolation, but their relation should be that of cordial co-operation rather than of dictation by one and acquiescence by the other. Thus only can they render, each in its own way, the highest service to the communities which they represent.

THE DESIRABILITY OF SO FEDERATING THE NORTH CENTRAL COLLEGES AND UNIVERSI- TIES AS TO SECURE ESSENTIALLY UNI- FORM OR AT LEAST EQUIVALENT ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

BY DEAN S. A. FORBES, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

Progressive development is a complex process, including always differentiation, with its gradual distinction and divergent growth of the parts of a system, and co-ordination, which brings each changing part under the limiting or the stimulating influence of all the rest—insures the subordinate action

² At the suggestion of Chancellor Andrews this method has just been adopted at the University of Nebraska.

of each, the co-ordinate action of all, in the common interest. It is differentiation which makes possible the adaptive processes, by which the organism shapes itself more closely to the surrounding world; to co-ordination is due its inner unity and individual strength. Things highly differentiated but imperfectly co-ordinated are weak and easily disorganized. They tend to waste their energies by internal friction; to pull themselves in pieces by internal struggle, to succumb piecemeal to unfavorable conditions. And this is as true of a social system as it is of a physiological one. It is as true of an educational system as it is of a political one. It is as true of an association of colleges and secondary schools as it is of an association of ants or bumble-bees. It is a law, not merely of organisms or of groups of organisms, but of organization itself.

The movement of which this day's discussion of our topic is a part is a movement for the better organization of an educational system in which the differentiating process has far outrun the co-ordinating one, in which the former is still in full swing, indeed, under the exactions of a highly complicated environment, while the latter can scarcely be said as yet to be fairly under way, and has no more efficient agent than volunteer associations like our own. It is high time, it seems to me, that we enter upon this work of organization and co-ordination earnestly and efficiently, for the longer it is postponed the more difficult it will become, and its difficulties are already sufficient to tax the most ingenious and the most experienced. For our plan of adjustment of high school and college must be fitted to the three-room, single-course high school of the small and humble village, with only the bare essentials of an equipment, and often lacking some of these, with pupils poorly or at best unevenly prepared for their high-school work, and with teachers who have but recently come to the school and are soon to go from it—and must fit also the thirty-room school of the metropolis, with a teaching faculty and an educational property and environment which must arouse the hopeless envy of many a college president. It must provide for the single good old-fashioned high-school course—if good old-fashioned teachers will permit me thus to speak of it—and must be equally applicable to the complicated elective offerings of the extremest type of the modern city school. On the other side of the relationship it must reach the college which gives its students no elective privileges whatever because it can offer nothing to elect; and it must reach also the great and complex college or university whose courses

are numbered by the hundred and whose elective lists are limited only by the boundaries of human thought and knowledge. It must tie the elective courses of the high school to the elective courses of the college at so many different points that whatever high-school course is chosen the chooser may find a college course—yes, I will say *any* college course—open to him at the end of his high-school period, and the union made must nevertheless be such that the high-school student who must turn aside at the college threshold will not find that his educational interests have been sacrificed in any way to those of the prospective college student.

And then our scheme for an adjustment of the work of the secondary schools to the requirements of the college must not leave out of view the technical schools and institutes and the colleges of technical arts. The position of power and importance which these schools and colleges are sure to occupy is clearly shown by the fact that wherever public money is voted to higher education, either by the national government or by any state, the technical or industrial school or college is sure to be at least as well provided for as the school of liberal arts. What the people of a powerful democracy so generally wish and so heartily support is sure to have a great development. Witness also the enormous strides now being made in the development of the interests which it is the special purpose of these educational agencies to serve. The growth in magnitude and the advance in grade, but especially also the rapidly increasing complication of the great industrial occupations, both civic and rural, are rapidly converting the trades of yesterday into the professions of to-morrow, and just as rapidly must our educational systems differentiate and expand. The trade school and the industrial high school, perhaps the commercial high school also, and the colleges of agriculture and of the technical arts—true colleges many of them in the grade and quality of their work and in the character and amount of their entrance requirements—must be taken fully into our account if we would do a fairly permanent piece of work.

These manifold difficulties are further increased by the fact that the process of development is evidently by no means complete, but is bound to go on for a time and to a degree which no one can now foresee. The bonds of union and adjustment must therefore be themselves progressively adjustable, must be self-adjustable in fact, if they are not to pull unevenly after a time or perhaps to break. And furthermore, this apparatus of adjustment must be so constructed and

applied that it will not hamper development and growth by making progress difficult at any point. It must favor the willing horse, and worry only the laggards of the team.

Some would perhaps simplify our problem by evading the most serious of these difficulties, limiting provisions for uniform entrance requirements to the departments commonly classed together under the general name of liberal arts and leaving the technical organizations to shift for themselves. This would be, however, as it seems to me, to begin a reactionary movement instead of a progressive one; to solve perhaps the problem of twenty-five years ago, but not that of the present day; to turn back, in short, into the nineteenth century instead of moving forward into the twentieth.

A subject of special interest preliminary to our practical inquiry into ways and means, is the preponderance of influence of high school or college respectively in the settlement of college entrance requirements—which are at the same time graduation requirements for the secondary school. Not very long ago the line of union was drawn by college authority wholly at its own discretion, the high school being thoroughly secondary to the college, and the college being itself secondary to the professional school, especially to the school of theology.

The final end of the series regulated and directed the successive steps. With the liberalization of the college and the popularization of the high school, however, the situation has been revolutionized, and now the high school exists not for those who are to go to college, but for those who are not satisfied with the preparation for life afforded by the primary and the grammar school; and the college exists for those who wish a more liberal or a more intensive education than the high school affords. The old system was suspended from the heavens, and the new one is built up from the earth.

The secondary school is now the college preparatory school to so subordinate a degree that it is absurd that the college entrance requirement should continue to determine the conditions of high-school graduation. It is time, indeed, to change the form of our inquiry. What we have really and primarily to discuss to-day is a uniform standard of high-school graduation requirements, together with such an adjustment of college requirements to high school courses as may seem possible and desirable. So to connect a widely various and freely elective high school with a still more widely various and more liberally elective college that it

shall be but a single unobstructed step from any part of the one to any part of the other, this is, in brief, the whole undertaking of the committees and commissions and associations which have attacked this subject.

In dealing with it we shall get very important help from three different sources: From the universities, especially those of the many states which have established each for itself some system of high-school inspection and credit; from college associations like our own, that of the Middle States and Maryland, for example; and from state associations of colleges and secondary schools established in part, like that in Iowa, for the adjustment of high-school and college courses. The state universities, in the North Central States at least, especially those in which agricultural, mechanical, scientific and literary departments are all associated under one organization and management, have been compelled to deal in their own local fields with the very subjects and to master the identical difficulties with which we must deal in the larger field of the North Central Association. What the universities of Minnesota, Wisconsin, Illinois and Missouri have done or can do to establish normal and helpful relations with the high schools of their respective states the colleges of this association can also do as a unit, I think, if they are so disposed.

Then we may build with grateful confidence upon the foundation laid by the committee of thirteen in its report for 1899—a report which deserves to live in educational history as a combination, so rare as to be phenomenal, of broad and intelligent conservatism on the one hand and thoroughly rational radicalism on the other. It gives one a hopeful pleasure to read in this paper, published under the endorsement of this eminent and representative Committee, sentences such as these:

"The public high school can become a link in the golden chain of our American system of education only when the colleges begin where the best high schools leave off." "Every young man or woman who has successfully devoted at least four years to earnest study in a well-equipped secondary school should be admitted to any college in the country, whether such a pupil has devoted a greater part of his time to Latin, Greek and mathematics, or to Latin, modern languages and mathematics, or to Latin, mathematics and the sciences, or to any other combination of studies which has developed his power and been in harmony with his intellectual aptitudes."

A brief summary of certain principal features of the

work of the committee will help us just now to recall its bearing on our topic.

1. The attempt is made to elaborate and establish definitions and descriptions of courses of work in the various subjects of the high school programme such as can be accepted by high school and college men alike as practically unvarying units of instruction, and from these uniform current units it is recommended that the curriculum of the pupil, the graduation requirement of the high school, the entrance requirement of the college shall everywhere be made up.

2. It is proposed that the courses of the high school, and hence the college entrance requirements, shall be offered under two classes nominally, constants and electives; but really under three, that is, constants, general electives, and what may be called group electives. Constants are those subjects which it is believed by the committee should be taught in every secondary school and required for entrance by every college—English, algebra and geometry, for example. The group electives are groups of courses from each of which a certain minimum amount of work must be chosen—for instance, foreign language and science. Whatever foreign languages are offered, the student should be required, the committee think, to have at least four years' work in one, or two years' work in each of two, but should not be further limited in his choice; and in science he should have at least a year's work in one, but should choose that one. The general electives cover all the remaining work of the school—all that not taken by the pupil under one or the other of the two above requirements.

3. The committee recommend a college entrance requirement uniform as to quantitative total of the units of instruction; and as to subjects and units of the constant list, but varying otherwise qualitatively according to the kind of college or the curriculum of the student's choice. They lean strongly to the view that anything good enough for high school graduation is good enough for college entrance, saying, indeed, in one place, "We recommend that any piece of work comprehended within the studies included in this report that has covered at least one year of four periods a week in a well-equipped secondary school, under competent instruction, should be considered worthy to count towards admission to college." And in another place: "Secondary schools should be allowed to arrange their programmes in accordance with local environment, the demands of their constituency, and the tastes of their pupils; and when the work in any study is

well done and a sufficient amount of it has been acquired, and this work is consistent with that done along other lines, it should be accepted by the college." And again: "All [college entrance] requirements should be so elastic that a pupil will not find himself, after a good four years' preparatory course of study, debarred from entering the college of his choice."

4. They approve the giving of college credit for high-school work done in advance of that required for entrance, on the ground that it raises the estimation in which the high school is held by its community; that it tends to lure the high-school graduate on into college work; and that it often encourages him to spend the last year of his high-school course in mere strenuous study by giving him a possible opportunity to earn college credit while still in the high school.

5. Although there was no representative of technical, or even of scientific, education among the thirteen members of this committee, they have discussed briefly one aspect of technical education, resolving that "the requirements for admission to technical schools should be as extended and thorough as the requirements for admission to college," and saying further: "The difficulties of the secondary schools in fitting students for college are now, and have in the past been, very great, on account of the different specifications from institutions which require theoretically the same amount of preparation. The technical school introduces an additional complication into the problem, and one of very serious import, in that its requirement is not only different in amount from that of the colleges, but also different as to specifications."

It will thus be seen that this committee has proposed exact definitions and descriptions of high-school courses in the various subjects; that it has distinguished the essential from the unessential in the conditions of high-school graduation, the fixed from the variable, prescribing as the main essential condition a full four years' course, five-eighths of which is qualitatively fixed and the remainder made elective; and that it has made several important recommendations as to methods of facilitating the passage from the high school to the college and filling in the gap now often found between them. In brief, it has mustered and classified high-school courses with reference to college requirements, and has suggested some methods and lines of adjustment of college to high school work.

Remembering that this was a National Committee, its membership covering an area bounded by Cambridge on the east and Berkeley on the west, by Minneapolis on the north and Cincinnati on the south, we shall not be surprised that its generalizations, made to fit extremely various conditions and subject to approval by widely different communities, are in places incomplete and in others a little vague. A process of compromise by mutual cancellation was doubtless sometimes used in framing its report; and it still remains for more homogeneous associations to review and approve or amend its various recommendations for their own territory, making them wherever possible more definite and more precise, and adapting them more exactly to relatively limited educational areas. And then, these things agreed to, it remains to give this legislative action practical effect by establishing some apparatus of administration which shall determine what schools are high schools; what high schools are doing the work of the established units in each course; what high schools teach a programme of studies entitling their graduates to college admission in our group; what so-called colleges are really such in our sense of the word, and which of these are willing to adopt and live up to a scheme of admission requirements agreed upon in this conference. And as conditions will change from time to time with respect to different schools and colleges, it will be necessary that this administrative machinery be kept at work, or at least in workable condition, year after year, probably making annual reports subject to approval by this association.

Some definite beginnings have been made, of different kinds, and here and there, towards a performance of these functions, the most recent and instructive perhaps by the Middle States and Maryland, and in the States of Iowa and Minnesota—in Iowa by the associated schools and colleges acting under the auspices of the State Teachers' Association, and in Minnesota by the state itself. The growing length of this paper admonishes me, however, that I must not take more time for an analysis of things done elsewhere if I would propose any definite programme for your consideration here.

To work any general scheme of affiliation and co-ordination a thoroughly representative standing committee of this association would evidently be necessary, and to this I think we should add a sub-committee for each state represented in our organization. The state is an independent educational unit as well as a political one—educational because political—but

much more independent educationally than politically. Not only is each state independent of every other, and of the National Government as well, in the establishment of its own educational system, but each has its own state teachers' association and its own state university, both of which should be utilized in this work. To the general association committee might well be left the duty of acting upon the recommendations and suggestions of the Report of the National Committee of Thirteen; that of defining and describing high-school courses of study, ascribing to each its admission value, and dividing the list of such courses into constants, group electives and general electives, to be accepted as such by all. This general committee would seem also to be the proper body to pass upon the competency of the colleges for participation in the establishment and maintenance of the proposed uniform standards of admission, while the state sub-committees, on the other hand, should report upon the high schools entitled to affiliation, either full or partial. The latter service can best be done for each state separately, because each has its own university at least, whose organic relations to the public high schools require that it should have at all times a fresh and intimate knowledge of all of them, and the information in its possession concerning these high schools would no doubt be placed at the service of this association of which all of these state universities are, or should be, members. In those states which, like Iowa, have a separate organization already formed for an examination and valuation of the work of their high schools, no doubt like adjustments could be made between these existing organizations and the state sub-committees of this association. If the Chairmen of these sub-committees were made members of the general standing committee also, all pertinent data and ideas of every description could be brought together at the regular meetings of the general committee, and the conclusions arrived at would be representative of all interests and doubtless fair to all affected by them.

When such a committee organization had fully performed its duties, we should have as a result an accepted list of high school subjects, and quantities of work in each, available for college entrance; a classification of these subjects and quantities of work with reference to the entrance requirement, and a general agreement as to that requirement itself; a list of high schools whose graduates are entitled to admission to any of our schools; another list of those whose work should receive

partial admission credit only, with an indication, of course, of the amount and kind of credit to which each is entitled; and a list of colleges accepting and maintaining the uniform standard of entrance and acting together on all related matters. To these should be added by the general committee a list of high school subjects and the amount of work in each for which the colleges will give advanced standing when offered in excess of the entrance requirement, together with a scale of values according to which such accepted high school work may be translated into college credits.

These things done, the organization and affiliation of colleges and high schools will be complete for our present purpose; and with any of these omitted, the desired end will lack some important item of its full accomplishment.

The high schools will be most benefited by these fixed adjustments, because they will have but one general standard of admission to provide for, and that well understood by all, instead of the many and various standards now prevailing, some of them very little known. And, further, high school students will not be forced to choose their colleges prematurely, or left in doubt whether the high school curriculum preferred by them will serve for college admission; and those of them who do not decide to go to college until their high-school work is far advanced will not find that by this delay they have seriously jeopardized their chances of admission.

The colleges will also be benefited by the much greater definiteness and uniformity of their high school relationships and the consequent simplification and reduction of this part of their administration, and by the fact that they will stand on precisely equal footing as to entrance conditions. We must not in this discussion blink the fact that there is a business side to college administration, and that on that side the colleges are competitors just as much as railroads are. This is, in a sense, the proposal of a uniform admission tariff agreed to by a competing group and administered by a representative commission. If there ever is any cutting of admission rates by competing colleges—I do not know that there is, but I fancy that there may sometimes be—the establishment of this system would of course result in the suppression of a practice so demoralizing.

Colleges and high schools will be jointly benefited by an affiliation such that they will henceforth move together as one articulated organism, each influenced by the other and each

considering the other carefully in whatever step is taken. And yet this mutual consideration and constraint need not embarrass progress, but should facilitate and stimulate it rather. It will tend to level upward instead of downward; and it will doubtless put some strain at first on the more backward colleges and secondary schools to make themselves worthy of this fellowship.

The proposed general standing committee of the association will also be a highly useful aid in the consideration and discussion of difficult subjects of fundamental interest, subjects, like the present one, too large and complicated to be handled satisfactorily in general and in detail in an open meeting of the entire association or in the hurried sessions of temporary committees able to act only in such intervals as they can snatch from the programmes of this body.

Whether the plan and the procedure I have sketched, perhaps too briefly, are the best for use just now or not, I think, Mr. Chairman, that I must at any rate have said enough to justify the statement with which I set out, that our present pressing need is a better co-ordination of our educational agencies in these North Central States, made with a view to organizing and unifying progress, which has lately gone too much along separate and disconnected lines. All the notable permanent additions to our educational system made within the last half century are due to outside criticism and social demand far more than to the natural unfolding of any inward principle of the system itself, and the result is a heterogeneous assemblage of institutions, new and old, each doing genuine service, answering to some real need, but all lacking the correlation and cohesion necessary to a general unity of aim and a wise economy of effort and expenditure. The public we serve is one notwithstanding its diversified and sometimes conflicting interests, and these agencies of service should also be organized as one in order that every part may be duly checked and balanced by every other, and that the whole may be more precisely adapted to the complex needs of this great, exacting, ambitious and expanding people.

The papers were discussed by President G. E. MacLean, of the University of Iowa; President W. H. Black, of Missouri Valley College; Professor Stanley Coulter, of Purdue University; Principal J. O. Leslie, of Ottawa, Ill.; Professor John J. Halsey, of Lake Forest University; Principal W. J. S. Bryan, of the St. Louis High School; Professor T. F. Holgate, of Northwestern University; Superintendent

Edward Ayres, of Lafayette, Ind.; Professor H. F. Fiske, of Northwestern University; President W. R. Harper, of the University of Chicago, and Principal J. E. Armstrong, of Englewood High School, Chicago.

PRESIDENT MACLEAN, commenting on the first of the papers, said that Professor Hill had passed from one extreme to another,—from the examination system enforced in every detail, to the quasi-examination provided by University inspection, from personal examination of the pupil to trust in the ability and honesty of the high school faculty. New England, following the tradition of Old England, had retained the personal examination, and was on the whole, taking into account the general level of our schools, more successful than the west in preparing pupils for college. He feared that if the suggestions of the paper were put into effect, the distance between the western schools and the New England schools would be widened. In the practical spirit which pervaded our schools and in the growing freedom of electives, these were forces which might make against painstaking scholarship.

Referring to the second paper, the speaker called attention to a metaphor used by Dean Forbes which, he feared, would give a false impression to the public. It was found in the statement that modern education is built from the earth and not transmitted, as was the old education, from above. Although a good deal of education was necessarily of the earth earthly, nevertheless the heavenly connection should be continued. The pioneers of education in the State of Iowa had believed in both. They had held fast to the heavenly, yet they had embodied in their fundamental law the principle that the university should begin where the high school left off. The speaker held that pupils should not be admitted to the university on the mere say-so of the high school faculty, nor yet upon the report of the university inspector. Only when the faculties of the high school sat in council with the faculty of the university would complete connection be made between earthly and heavenly education.

PRESIDENT BLACK, speaking for the college, thought it was the practice of the college faculty to set the new student at work at the tasks for which he was prepared. He believed this to be true of the universities also. The pressure of public sentiment and the necessity of appealing to the legislature for funds made it highly desirable for the state universities to have large enrollments. They did not often turn applicants away. There might not be a preparatory department connected with the university to which they could be sent, but there was generally an agricultural department which served the same purpose. All were kept and all were counted. Such an articulation of secondary schools and colleges was necessitated by the rapidly changing conditions in the west. Whatever theory might be held, the practice must be to take what came and make the best of it. And this was right, for the institutions existed not for their own sake, but for the benefit of humankind.

PROFESSOR HALSEY spoke of two problems which confronted the small institutions. The first was a selfish one, how to get students; the second was that of keeping up the standard of entrance to a high grade. He felt that the colleges had gone too far in seeking to get students and, speaking as an economist, he pointed to the great waste of effort in the rival attempts of small institutions. They were, he

said, cutting each others' throats. It seemed to him very desirable that some system of co-operation should be adopted in the examination of students for entrance. Possibly if such an arrangement could be made some of the smaller institutions might be eliminated from the list of colleges by the law of the survival of the fittest. At any rate, the much desired end might be attained of a consensus of opinion as to what a college ought to be and as to what college entrance should require.

It was desirable to maintain a high standard of entrance in all the schools. The concerted examinations by the colleges would do much to bring that about. If "the heavenly from above," of which the Association had been hearing, was from the college side, those who represented the smaller colleges, especially wanted certain standards of entrance maintained if only to save the smaller colleges from the necessity of running around in the commercial business of getting students. A concerted plan of examinations would constrain the high schools to prepare their students from year to year for any or all colleges, and the personal or local preferences of students would be left to decide whether they should continue their work. Thus the colleges would be relieved of the necessity of solicitation and of the constant peril from the pressure to lower the standard.

Superintendent EDWARD AYRES called attention to the action taken by the Association in 1898, and again in 1900, looking to the appointment of a commission to formulate uniform entrance requirements.¹ He inquired whether such a commission had been appointed.

Replying to Superintendent Ayres' question, the Chairman stated that so many difficulties had presented themselves, and so many members had declined to serve, that the commission had not been appointed. The plan adopted at the last meeting called for no less than forty commissioners. In his opinion such a plan was impracticable.

PROFESSOR HOLGATE thought that the plan proposed by Dean Forbes, if carried into effect would materially aid the smaller high schools. It might then be possible to give assurances to these schools that their certificates would be accepted everywhere at their face value. The graduate of a small high school who presented a certificate for twelve units to a university that required fourteen units, should receive credit for twelve units and be permitted to complete the requirements in a preparatory school. If he presented a certificate for sixteen units he should receive advanced credit for the excess over the requirements.

PRINCIPAL LESLIE raised the question whether pupils did not complete their work in the high school and the university at too early an age. Men who thought they had graduated too late in life were hard to find. This opinion was concurred in by PROFESSOR FISKE and illustrated by the instance of a shrewd lawyer of Chicago who advised his son against graduating and going into practice at the age of twenty on the ground that no one would trust him with any important business until he was at least twenty-seven years of age. "Instead of sitting idle in your office," said the father, "waiting for business to come to you, spend the next two years in making money to finish your education. Then entering the university, pursue a course of

¹See Proceedings of the Third Annual Meeting, pages 101, 110, 111, Fourth Annual Meeting, page 124, Fifth Annual Meeting, pages 2, 55, 56.

graduate study and follow it by a course in law." The son had taken this advice, had graduated at the age of twenty-five, had at once secured a position with a leading firm, and from the start had had all the business he could attend to.

PRESIDENT W. R. HARPER took the opposite view of this question. Young men were being graduated from the colleges, he thought, at too late an age. From the experience of members of his family he was inclined to think that the larger part of the college work, perhaps two-thirds or three-fourths of it, could be done as well at an earlier age. It grieved him to see men of the age of twenty-three or twenty-five in the freshman and sophomore classes. He was disposed to pity the man who was a freshman at twenty-one. He agreed with President Eliot of Harvard University that every man should be through with his educational work, married and settled at the age of twenty-five. He saw no reason why the average boy, entering college on the sixteen-unit basis, should not be through at the age of twenty-one. This was certainly desirable if the student were going into business.

At this point in the discussion it was moved by Secretary C. A. Waldo that a committee of five be appointed to take the question into consideration and to report, on the following day, some plan of action embodying the idea outlined by Dean Forbes and the suggestions thrown out in the course of the discussion.

The motion was carried. The President then appointed the following persons as members of the committee: Dean S. A. Forbes (chairman), President Cady Staley, President W. R. Harper, Principal C. G. Ballou, and Professor Stanley Coulter.

The Association then adjourned until half-past two o'clock.

SECOND SESSION, FRIDAY AFTERNOON.

The President opened the second session at 2:30 p. m.

The reading of papers was resumed.

THE PROBLEM OF HARMONIZING STATE INSPECTION BY NUMEROUS COLLEGES SO AS TO AVOID DUPLICATION OF WORK AND SECURE THE GREATEST EFFICIENCY.

BY INSPECTOR A. S. WHITNEY, ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN.

(ABSTRACT.)

The inspection of high schools originated in Michigan thirty years ago. At first the inspection was made yearly, but later the term of approval was extended. At the present time the best schools are put upon the accredited list for a term of three years. For a number of years the inspection was confined to schools within the state. Now seventy-five schools in other states are regularly inspected. When this practice of inspecting outside schools was begun, the University of Michigan was practically without a rival in the Northwest. Her inspectors were the only inspectors. But now conditions have changed. The other universities have made rapid strides in numbers and influence. They have taken up the business of inspection with energy and enthusiasm. Even the colleges are inspecting. The result is that every high school is inspected by the representatives of many different institutions. This duplication of inspection is not only a waste of energy and expense; it is a source of annoyance to the schools. The teachers are becoming tired of it. There is danger that the system of inspection will lose prestige in

the eyes of the secondary teachers. To obviate such a danger the Association should form a sort of educational trust, or clearing-house, for the exchange of opinions regarding the standing of schools in the different states. Most of the state universities now have official inspectors. It would be possible for these inspectors, meeting once or perhaps twice a year, to formulate uniform inspectors' blanks, to interpret standards of requirement, and to agree upon a list of schools in each state which should be examined only by the inspector for that state. Such a list would at first include only the schools of the highest rank, but later it might be possible to agree upon a list of schools of the second rank.

The ends of such a clearing-house and of inspection generally would be materially advanced if the universities would adopt the plan of issuing bulletins at regular intervals giving interpretations of the requirements and offering hints and suggestions to secondary teachers regarding methods and means of instruction.

The paper was discussed by PRESIDENT AITON, who approved the suggestions of Professor Whitney. He also called attention to the common but erroneous view that the business of the inspector was to recruit students. The evils resulting from such a view would be corrected by the plan proposed.

THE SERVICE THAT INSPECTION SHOULD BE EXPECTED TO RENDER THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY.

BY PRESIDENT JOHN R. KIRK, OF THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
KIRKSVILLE, MISSOURI.

The preparation of a short paper on this subject is undertaken with much reluctance and many misgivings.

In the Mississippi Valley the examination of schools by competent inspectors has not been extensively and systematically carried into execution, except, perhaps, in two or three states. In those states the evidence of the value of the service covers too brief a period and savors too much of personal testimony to be offered as a basis for discussion.

It is necessary therefore to consider the conditions and to show from the conditions what ought to be done and what results should be expected, corroborating theoretical treatment by results wrought out in the limited experiences which can be cited. One misleading fact first deserves notice: It is that school supervision has been almost universally adopted and that it is in general favor. A little observation and reflection, however, will convince an unbiased and sensible person that the common notion of supervision is extremely vague, that it amounts usually to a mere dogma, seldom analyzed or comprehended. It is perhaps good as far as it goes; but it seldom goes far enough. Even supervision of elementary schools, excepting in a few cities and counties, is very superficial and irregular, and it falls far short of the merits claimed for it. In a majority of cases it is a scheme of mere visitation, without much influence excepting a little temporary excitement in each school at the time of visitation.

Again, the seemingly universal belief in supervision does not include the secondary schools. The public high school has grown so suddenly into its present vast proportions that the mental horizon of the people and their supervisors falls far short of its adequate measurement, and we may say with safety that, outside a very few cities, supervision never seriously affects the high schools.

Unfortunately, it too often happens that the men intrusted with supervision are so short in scholarship as to be incapable of effective supervision or inspection or critical judgment of secondary instruction.

Sometimes the superintendent, though possessed of relatively good scholarship, is contented to go along criticising and dogmatizing as to processes in elementary instruction while allowing high school teachers to follow peacefully their own will and pleasure; and it sometimes happens that the competent superintendent, who would inspect, criticise and help the high school, is handicapped by precedent and by the dominating interference of pugnacious and officious school board members, so that he can not put into effective operation his educational ideas, be they ever so good; and unfortunately it happens that in the current practice of electing principals and superintendents many are chosen, not because of scholarship and professional fitness, but simply because they are rugged, sensible fellows able to manipulate spring elections, entertain complaining patrons,

pacify turbulent teachers and students, oil conventional school machinery and run errands for school board politicians.

This is not an expression of cynicism or disappointment. It is fact. The writer has not suffered and has no personal grievance to air. We are seeking the truth, and no one is prepared to believe how small a proportion of supervising school officials are really capable teachers and critics till he has traveled extensively among schools and disinterestedly compared the men at work. Those of us who form opinions at long range, or accept the same from others at second hand, are little able to appreciate existing conditions.

The routine of daily duties required of the ordinary school superintendent keeps him in such a state of mental distraction that he is at least liable to become habitually evasive, adroit, politic and at times obsequious. His associations tend to unfit him for studiously inspecting, comparing and modifying concrete educational processes.

A sharp discrimination should be made between inspection on the one hand and the perfunctory process called supervision on the other. Supervision is *overseeing*. Inspection is *critical analysis*. Supervision sees the surface and the forms of instruction. Inspection looks into the heart of it with the purpose of determining its significance and its value as a means of mind growth and a foundation for further knowledge. Inspection is by one competent to penetrate to the core of things, who refuses to stop short of the discovery of excellence and the detection of mediocrity and inefficiency. In the popular forms of supervision the superior school room teacher is often visited and ostensibly supervised by one who is relatively inferior in professional attainments. Supervision answers to popular demands. Inspection meets and rectifies popular notions and serves the community by directing agencies with which the populace by itself can never quite keep up.

First of all the efficient inspector must be independent of the schools inspected. This he can not be if dependent upon popular elections or appointment by officials who regard political or religious affiliations. Some have thought the inspector, or as we call him in Missouri, the examiner, might well be a deputy of the state superintendent of schools. No doubt that official should have some deputy or deputies engaged in actual inspection; but the still better form of secondary school inspection is that in which the inspector

is selected by and responsible to some such permanent authority as the state university, or that institution and associated institutions of higher learning. There should be a permanency and an independence in the high school inspector which can not be guaranteed through such an office as an elective and unstable superintendency. There is another reason for this view: One highly fruitful effect of inspection is the almost constant correspondence which it brings about between the secondary schools and the institutions of higher learning. A majority of secondary schools are isolated and greatly need the stimulus of frequent correspondence with the higher institutions.

The qualifications of the inspector are of supreme importance. It is not sufficient that he have the scholarship which the university and college give. That qualification is essential, of course. But is it not sufficient to intrust inspection to the members of university and college faculties? No, that form of inspection is almost as unreliable and unfruitful as that by the political appointee. This expression does not imply any lack of respect for the university professors; but these men, with all their talent and sterling qualities, are seldom competent judges to measure secondary instruction while it is being given. The best of them devote their lives to their departments. By their habits they are ill fitted to appreciate the conditions surrounding secondary schools. We may cite the professor of literature. Accustomed to the deeper learning and more accurate knowledge and expression of college life, he is in no condition to sympathize with the inaccurate, unsteady and relatively uncertain insight of the secondary school student; or, if sympathetic at all, he has an involuntary leaning towards those phases of work which point in the direction of his particular department. Experiments in science and demonstrations in mathematics require severe conscious effort to hold his attention. His apperception masses (as the Herbartians would say) probably impel him so strongly towards the work which is allied to his own department that he hardly feels himself to be so free or so safe a critic as he would wish to be. Again, it is doubtful whether a majority of college men can fully appreciate the method of instruction adapted to secondary schools. A large part of college and university instruction is by lectures. The professor is an authority, rightly so, of course. He delivers the truth as he sees it from his own view-point. The college student is there

to get it, the professor to give it. Not so in the secondary school. The boy has view-points of his own. If you reach him you must appeal to him through *his* view-point. Dogmatize, and he turns his back upon you, rightly. The high school teacher must reach all the members of his class. He must stir up the slow ones. He must exercise the quick ones. He must adapt his instruction. There is exacted of him much that no one expects of the college professor; hence you see how ill adapted to inspection the college professor really is, and were each professor adapted to inspection in his own department it would seem impracticable to send out enough such men to do justice to each secondary school; and if the several professors could make adequate inspection, it is doubtful whether they could ever bring their knowledge into relation so as to be of much benefit to the secondary school. Again, the professor rarely has such acquaintance with the school and community at large that he can do effective service by way of explaining to school officials and people the purposes of inspection and the benefit of articulation between higher institutions and the lower schools. In select circles no doubt the university professor is the best man of all; but the select circles of cultured people can take care of themselves. What inspection seeks is the uplifting of secondary instruction for the great mass of children in the stormy period of adolescence. Inspection carries with it the stimulus of higher learning and points constantly in the direction of the higher institutions.

Who then is a good inspector? His selection is no easy matter. He should be mature in years and judgment, familiar with social and business life as well as institutional life. He should have sound scholarship in several departments of learning; though he need not be strictly a specialist in any. *As a minimum* he should have such scholarship in Latin, Greek, history, mathematics, science, literature, art and the forms of industrial education as will enable him to be an accurate and ready medium between the typical secondary school and the faculty of the college and university. A knowledge of modern languages would make him so much the better; but there is a limit to what a man may know if he would be highly serviceable. For lack of cyclopedic knowledge there are compensations in available knowledge of the so-called practical kind. Above all, the inspector must be of the strongly motor type. There is much for him to organize and set in motion. The purely college product

is not and can not be a good inspector. He must have so lived as to have mixed considerably with people at large and to have become familiar with the great heart and purposes of all those whom he would serve. The inspector must continue to mix with the people. He must comprehend the motives of the people and of the adolescent school population as well as the demands of higher learning; and to be a safe guide he should have had considerable preliminary experience in conducting secondary schools. Otherwise he can not appreciate the conditions which surround such schools. A good inspector is really hard to find.

The inspector should be a good extemporaneous speaker who can adapt himself to almost any sort of audience, special or mixed, interested in educational topics. For he has daily opportunity to stimulate promising young lives to higher effort and more definite purposes, and frequent opportunity to direct public sentiment aright by words fitly spoken.

But some doubtless say: Are not secondary schools taking care of themselves? I answer, no. The majority of them are simply drifting or imitating the others. What is their real status?

The most important factor which confronts us is the teaching corps of the high school. The tendency in the middle West is to fill the high school positions with fledglings from university and college graduating classes. So far as it goes this tendency is wholesome, but it falls short of the desired end. School officials are looking to the colleges and universities for high school teachers. Every spring a large number of college and university graduates, loaded with testimonials, besiege the school boards for high school positions. It is agreed that a majority of these graduates have pretty good scholarship in what they have studied. It is not demonstrable, however, that even a respectable minority of them are adapted to positions as high school teachers. Many of them have no intention to engage permanently in teaching. A large proportion of them have given no thought whatever to the philosophy of education, the history of education, or even the less important and more formal question of methods of teaching with which the elementary teachers of the country are tolerably familiar. It is even found that many of these young teachers who have ostensibly studied pedagogy in the university have merely listened to a few lectures and read a few heavy and more or less antiquated

books about pedagogy, and that they have very inadequate notions of the concrete processes in secondary schools. Most of the young high school teachers then are on their first impulse given to quote and follow the schemes of instruction to which they have been accustomed during the three or four years spent in college or university. But college and university methods of instruction are not at all adapted to secondary schools, consequently many young high school teachers unable to adapt instruction to their classes are discovered to be failures, and either thrown out of their positions or tolerated as teachers by indulgent school boards at the expense of the children.

We know of the complaints of the college professors as to the crudeness and ignorance of the high school graduate on entering the college classes. No wonder the college man is disappointed with the high school graduate. His complaints are well founded. But the clamor of the public against the college graduate as a teacher is yet louder, and it is equally well founded.

College men generally supply testimonials lauding the pedagogical talents of their graduates. School boards accept these testimonials and the children pay the penalty. It would do no harm if college men were to get themselves prohibited from recommending prospective teachers; for, as a rule, almost nothing can be foretold as to a student's teaching ability from his college work.

My subject furnishes a rare opportunity for studying action and re-action. The college sends into the high school teaching corps a great many educated incapables, and has its freshman classes filled with students who are ill trained, undeveloped and deceived by their alleged preparation in the high school.

It is time for the high school and the college to get together. Before the college professor has much to say of ill trained high school products he ought to consider very seriously the fitness of his own graduates whom he sends out to teach in the high school. As a matter of fact he stamps *his* impress on his own students and they in turn imitate him and quote him as their authority, and by conscious or unconscious imitation perpetuate his methods, notwithstanding the fact that his methods, perfectly adapted to college work, are a misfit in the secondary school. The good inspector will often astonish the college professor by reporting that the college graduate who had given him much

promise turns out to be a signal failure as a high school teacher. The writer has some specific cases now in mind.

Perhaps some one says: "Why not try the normal school graduate as a high school teacher?" The answer is easy. Nothing is gained by exchanging one incompetent for another. The normal school graduate is the better teacher of what he knows, but he doesn't know enough. Too many normal schools treat education as if it could be transmitted by inoculation. Most of them will be unable to help secondary education until they get upon a higher plane.

Everywhere and all the time the high school children long for definite knowledge and definite things to do. In a majority of schools they are capable of doing much better work than they are permitted to do.

Here, then, arises the opportunity for the high school inspector. Backed by the college and university, receiving his ideals from them, guided by them, responsible to them, he comes to the high school as the agent and the herald of higher education. If he is what he should be, the people soon find it out. Such a man has a power as yet little appreciated except in a few places where his influence has been exerted.

He comes with definite ideals and for definite purposes. He comes to establish standards, to set the boundaries of things to be done, to make vague things clear. He is accustomed to the atmosphere of adolescent students. He readily discovers their temper. He involuntarily compares each school with others. He recognizes the evidence of home culture. He detects the superficial, the slovenly, the idle, the disorderly, the scatter-brained among teachers and students. The teachers desire to talk with him. They ask for his views and criticisms. The principal desires to consult with him. He speaks plainly and frankly to teachers and principal. He meets the board of education. They desire to hear his opinion of their school and of their teachers. They ask, Will he report that the work of each teacher be accepted by the higher institutions? As to one, he answers, yes; as to another, no. They ask and hear the reasons for his answers. He is usually asked to talk to the students. Here is an opportunity to do great good, to direct energy, to intensify interest, to appeal to the many-sidedness of human interest by pointing out definite avenues open to high school students, to tell them about colleges and universities and how they may prepare to enter these institu-

tions. This is no idle matter. If there is one fact that worries the high school inspector and haunts him it is this, that our young high school people do not have the way to the college pointed out to them once where it should be done a dozen times. They do not feel the stimulus of higher education because they do not hear of it.

The high school atmosphere is full of driveling talk about getting into actual life—as if school or college were something else. The good inspector catches many a bright boy and draws him to the university in mere conversation. In his talk before the high school he shows specifically to what each high school subject leads. He shows the purpose of things. He of all men inspires young students with wholesome and definite ambitions. So many of the young do not care to do anything because they are not going to be anything. There is altogether too much namby-pamby in high school students. They have too little of will power, they are not sufficiently encouraged to tackle real difficulties and resolutely endure hardships.

The meeting of the inspector with the school board is an exceptionally good opportunity to mould and direct sentiment, especially in the towns and small cities. Many boards have not learned how to invest money in school appliances. One town provides well for Latin and literature and has nothing for history or science. The next town perhaps reverses this order. An hour with the school board shows them wherein their school is weak or strong and to what extent their graduates can articulate with higher institutions. The inspector sometimes secures in one hour what the local teachers have vainly tried for years to get. This isn't mere talk! This is fact. Thus the hour with the school board may serve to recast the entire scheme of the school.

It should be noticed that the teaching corps in the smaller high schools is very changeable, and that nearly every year brings in a new set of more or less officious school board members, many of them totally ignorant of their duty.

The inspector meets these men. That is what he is for. He modestly but firmly reveals to them the condition of their school. They often say to him, "Why, we had no idea things bore such and such relations." The inspector can do many things through the school board that local teachers can not do at all. He shows the board what the condi-

tions and equipments in other towns are. Local pride is easily touched. Each town wants what others have—and a little more. The inspector knows about school appliances, their cost, quality, and where to get them.

Thus from day to day he is in direct contact with the teachers; he talks with the principal regarding all points of excellence and all prominent defects in the school, he makes clear to the school board the conditions and what changes are possible and desirable.

A majority of school boards are either misinformed or ignorant as to the merits of their school, their buildings and their appliances. Few boards as such are well informed. Especially are school boards ignorant of the relation of their schools to higher institutions. It is evident, therefore, that the field for the competent inspector is a very large and inviting one. There is scarcely a man in the university that has opportunity to do so much good.

Do the people want the inspector? I pledge you my word they do. For when the man comes into town whose official duty it is to join their high school or academy to the college and university, and weld it as an integral part into the great educational chain of the state, the people unite in cordially welcoming him.

And the boys and girls of the typical high school! They rejoice at the coming of one who points out to them definite possibilities. They live in the future, they like to know what they may do and be. These are the people who appreciate help, boys and girls, at the beginning and during the period of adolescence, those three or four years of storm and stress, of exuberance and gloom, of ecstasy and depression, years of uncertainty, while the young mortal is neither child nor man. These are the years that demand instruction and guidance by mature and sympathetic teachers. But what do they get? We annually turn loose in the high school teaching corps a new set of raw and inexperienced college and university graduates whose training has carried them as far as possible from consciousness of and sympathy with the conditions of adolescence; and we say to these novices: Now prepare these young men and women "the 90 per cent" for life and "the 10 per cent" for college. Our creed requires experienced teachers in all primary schools. But there is great recklessness in turning over the high school classes to the "bookful block-head" however "ignorantly read." And it takes about three years of waste-

ful empiricism to transform the beginner into a fair high school teacher. This is what the record shows. Then side by side with the recent graduate in the high school teaching corps is the ignoramus put there by political pull. And yet we wonder and complain that boys come up to college not knowing how to write good English.

Perhaps it is asked: Are the secondary schools really so bad? I answer: No, not all of them, probably not more than 60 or 70 per cent of them. In nearly 10 per cent of them the teachers are perhaps all good. In from 10 to 20 per cent of them the teachers are perhaps nearly all good.

But there are many of the smaller high schools and academies in which one does not find a single teacher of first rate ability. It should be noticed also that while some schools are being raised into good condition each year, others are lapsing into disorder and inefficiency. From what a school is this year, therefore, it is impossible to predict what will be its condition next year. A school which is approved this year and articulated with the university may need to be cut out next year.

Hence, in order to avoid honoring incompetency and charlatany the typical secondary school should undergo annual inspection.

In view of these facts I do not know of anything more helpful to the school and community that each university can do than to send into the field at least one picked man, of undoubted aptitude, to insure the maintenance of educational standards, to enforce the substitution of definiteness and high quality for vagueness and mere quantity in secondary schools, and to bring these schools into direct relation and continuous articulation with the institutions of higher learning, and keep them in that condition.

DEAN E. A. BIRGE, of the University of Wisconsin, opened the discussion of the paper, directing his remarks toward modifying the criticisms of the last speaker regarding the poor quality of high school teachers and high school inspection.

He was followed by PRINCIPAL E. L. HARRIS, of Cleveland, who suggested that the responsibility of choosing and retaining teachers rested upon the shoulders of the principals and superintendents. He had found inspection by members of the university faculty of great help to teachers and pupils, but he believed the "clearing-house" suggested by Professor Whitney would be an improvement upon the old method.

COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN ENGLISH.

BY PROFESSOR F. N. SCOTT, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

Recent discussions of entrance requirements in English have dealt mainly with the practical and the concrete—with methods of teaching, courses of study, and lists of books. It may be interesting to take another point of view. Let us consider for a few moments the rationale of the subject. What do we mean by college-entrance requirements? More particularly, what do we mean by entrance requirements in English?

College-entrance requirements imply some kind of relationship between colleges and secondary schools. We may begin by asking what forms or types this relationship may assume. Attempting an answer this question, we shall find, I think, that as respects this relationship there are two distinct and opposed conceptions. For convenience they may be termed the Feudal Conception and the Organic Conception.

The feudal conception originated in England in the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, whence it was transplanted bodily to this country at the founding of the two leading eastern universities, Harvard and Yale. In the East it is still the prevailing idea, though certain features of the organic system are making gradual encroachments upon it.¹ Those who entertain the feudal conception in its extreme form, imagine the university as holding to the preparatory schools the relation of an ancient baron or over-lord to the common people. According to this view the university authorities live as it were in a moated castle, in proud isolation from the rest of the world. They lay down arbitrarily the conditions upon which persons shall be admitted to communion with them. They let in whom they choose and keep out whom they choose. The life within the university has only an accidental relation to the life without. The university has its own aims, its own ideals, its own standards, which exist quite independently of the aims and ideals and standards of the secondary schools. It is not affected by changes in the schools. The schools may sink or swim, sur-

¹I refer to admission by certificate, a small part of the organic conception, often mistaken by eastern teachers for the whole.

vive or perish, advance or retrograde—it is all one to the university. *Its* life goes steadily on. To all appeals from the schools it has just one reply: "Fit pupils to pass our examinations and the drawbridge will be lowered. If you cannot fit them, you are no longer of any interest to us. We will have none of you."

Such is the general conception of the feudal system of relationships between school and university. Of such a system it is obvious that the essential and characterizing features are (1) a set of more or less arbitrary requirements for admission formulated by the university authorities, and (2) a rigid examination to which all applicants for admission must submit themselves. Both the entrance requirements and the examination are matters which pertain solely, or almost solely, to the university. The standard of requirement is determined out of hand by the university authorities. The examinations are conducted, at the university or elsewhere, by university examiners. From the point of view of the schools, therefore, requirements and examinations, being the recognized prerogatives of the university, have a value almost purely negative. They are little more than barriers set up by the university in order to keep out objectionable students.

That such a system has its good features cannot be denied. Perhaps the most obvious of them is that the university can set the pace. The preparatory school must bring its pupils up to a certain grade of proficiency or go out of business. The university thus has the power of raising, as it were by the hair of the head, all of the preparatory schools to a fairly high level. But the system also has some obvious disadvantages, not the least of which is its tendency to convert the preparatory schools into mere coaching machines. Under stress of the feudal system the principal of a preparatory school might reason with himself in this way: "The university sets up a barrier at the entrance, by means of which the examiners propose to keep my pupils out. Let it be my business, then, to get them in. Whether they go through the barrier, or over it, or under it, is of no consequence to me. My success will be measured by the number of my pupils who, after the examinations are over, shall be found on the other side. I shall comply with what appears on the face of the requirements. The university must be responsible for the results." Moreover, a principal who reasoned thus would be strongly tempted to select teachers

who were similarly minded to himself. He would naturally choose those who had most ingenuity in coaching pupils to pass examinations, rather than those whose influence upon the characters of the pupils would be best and most lasting. The teachers whom he employed, knowing that they were engaged for the specific purpose of putting pupils through the examinations, might bend all their energies to this one task. They might dismiss, as no concern of theirs, the ultimate effects of such discipline. The outcome might conceivably be that both principal and teachers would tend to lose in some measure their independence and power of initiative. They would need the galling spur of university censure to keep them up even to the level of the formal requirements.

I have put the case hypothetically, but that even the best of the eastern preparatory schools and the best of the eastern teachers are not wholly exempt from these dangers is shown by recent events. I have just been reading the report of the fifteenth annual meeting of that ancient and honorable body, the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools—a body whose deliberations have contributed to the history of education not only some of its most profitable, but also some of its most amusing features. At this meeting Mr. Charles Cornell Ramsay, principal of the Durfee High School, Fall River, read a report relating to admission to college by certificate and by examination. In the course of his report Mr. Ramsay quoted with approval the following letter from "the head master of a well-known academy":

"The preparatory schools cannot do without the drastic stimulus of an entrance examination to college. Masters are lazy—some lazier than others, but lazy. The colleges may talk until Time grows gray, but they (the masters) will not act with vigor unless they see the grim necessity right before them of working daily six days each week, to enable boys to enter college with credit. Given the college and anxious parents to apply the spur, and most masters will 'come to time.' "

So far as appears from the report there were no protests against these amazing charges, either at the time they were read or later. The head-master's characterization seems to have been accepted equanimously and as a matter of course. Indeed, in the discussion that followed, Mr. Wm. C. Collar, head master of the Roxbury Latin School, ap-

plauded the sentiments just quoted. "I believe," he said, "man is a lazy animal by nature, and a boy is so in a superlative degree, and rightly, and we all need, boys and teachers, a goad and a spur, and the examination for admission to college supplies in some measure the goad and the spur that we all need."

It would be superfluous to point out the particular way in which these utterances illustrate the tendencies that have been indicated above.

In sharp contrast to the feudal conception, both in its nature and in its effects, stands the conception that I have termed organic. In its origin it is, of course, an emanation of the Teutonic mind. Embodied first in the school system of Prussia, it was conveyed to America by means of Cousin's famous *Report* and found its way into the Northwest Territory at a crucial period in the history of our western education. I am repeating what is known to every one here, when I say that this idea received its first concrete expression in America in the school system of the State of Michigan. From that state it has spread over the whole expanse of the West, wherever state universities have been established.

I have represented the feudal conception under the figure of a baronial castle, but the organic system has so little in common with the feudal system that to picture it adequately to ourselves we must call in the aid of a wholly different metaphor. Although I am aware of the dangers inherent in biological analogies, I will compare this system to a living body. Of this body the university and the schools are inseparable members. They are related as the eye is related to the hand or as the arteries are related to the heart. As is the case in the living organism, there is division of labor and mutual dependence of parts. The well-being of each member is involved in the well-being of the other. Neither can act arbitrarily and independently without endangering the integrity of the organism. Or, translating these metaphorical terms into plain statements, the schools and the university in the organic system constitute one organization, which can reach its highest point of efficiency only when the dependence is recognized, not only of the schools upon the university but of the university upon the schools.

That an organic system in its theoretically pure form can be found in actual operation in this country I shall not attempt to maintain, but I do maintain with a good deal of

emphasis that the beginnings of such a system can be seen here in the West, that it is growing up spontaneously all about us, in response to a public demand, and that presently it will, as the philosophers say, come to consciousness of itself and take a more definite form. That the form, when it is perfected and made manifest, will be a reproduction of the German system, I am very far from believing. On the contrary, it will be something *sui generis*, something American, probably something western, the outgrowth of our peculiar needs and temperament and ideals.

If the essential features of the feudal system are the entrance requirements imposed by the university and the university examinations,* the essential features of the organic system are: (1) agreement as to what constitutes the normal course of development of young persons of high school age, (2) a trustworthy means of communication through which the university, on its part, may learn what the high schools can do, and the high schools, on their part, may learn what the university wants. The first is what

¹If I have omitted to speak of entrance examinations at Western universities, it is because at those universities the number of persons examined for admission is now so small as to be practically negligible. The following table will make this sufficiently clear. The statistics, except in the case of Cornell University, are of the fall of 1900, and (with the same exception) relate only to the literary department.

Universities	Admitted on certificate	Special students	Examined	Total	Per cent examined
Chicago	212	71	50	333	15
Michigan.....	399 ¹	90	48	537	8.9
Wisconsin.....	238	60	28	460 ²	6
Illinois.....	120	45	10	175	5.7
Iowa	130	38	8	166	4.8
Cornell.....	577 ³	67	24	668	3.5
California.....	542	127	21	690	3
Colorado.....	78	26	0	104	0
Nebraska.....	245 ⁴	106	0 ⁴	351	0.
Minnesota	233	128	0 ⁴	361	0

1. Including 142 admitted to advanced standing.
2. Including 164 admitted on regents' certificates, and 138 to advanced standing. The figures are taken from the president's report for 1899-1900.
3. Including 65 admitted by the enrollment committee.
4. No one took all of the examinations; a few were examined in special subjects.
5. The figures are approximate only. Hence the inconsistency.

we know as university requirements; the second exists, at present, in a crude, inchoate form in our present system of university inspection, our associations of secondary and university teachers, our university publications intended for secondary teachers, and our system of reports and certificates.

Although one who is familiar with the workings of the organic system is not likely to maintain that it is in practice an unmixed good, yet such a one can easily show wherein it escapes the evils of the feudal system. Its general effect upon both principal and teacher is to promote independence, and at the same time a sense of responsibility. The teacher is not engaged in coaching pupils for examination. He is not even, in any narrow sense, fitting them for the university. They are already in the university, in the sense that they are in the system of which the university is a part. If the teacher is in substantial agreement with the ideals of the university—and the theory of the system supposes that he is—he is free to arrange his work solely with reference to the needs of his pupils. He is responsible to the university not for the completion of some set of formal requirements, but for developing to the utmost the minds and characters of the pupils in his charge.

We are now ready, after this long introduction, to consider the rationale of the so-called English requirements. What are English requirements from the point of view of the eastern and western teacher, and what are their effects on teacher and pupil? From the eastern standpoint, entrance requirements are necessarily something pretty specific and rather formal. All pupils must take the same examination; hence all must read the same books in the same way. The examiners, in order to finish their gigantic tas'k of marking four hundred or five hundred examination papers in a brief time, must read, as one of them puts it, "under the lash." Hence the pupil, in order to stand any chance of getting good marks, must conform to a conventional standard. He must learn to write the things which, by tradition, have found favor in the eyes of the over-scrutched examiners. Now, what the effect of such a requirement may be upon other subjects than English, I cannot say. Possibly in the case of such studies as algebra and geometry and Latin

*PROFESSOR L. B. R. BRIGGS, in *Twenty Years of School and College English*, p. 47.

(as it is taught) it does no great harm. But in the case of English, and particularly in the case of composition, it seems to me almost certain to be disastrous. The reasons for this are obvious. The teaching of English, more than the teaching of any other subject, is a matter of sympathy, of personal appeal, of mind catching fire from mind. Spontaneity and enthusiasm are the very breath in its lungs. Without these, drill and recitation and correction count for little. Unless the teacher of English can carry his pupils with him, they do not go at all; they fall by the wayside. But to all of these requisites of good English teaching the feudal idea is flatly opposed. It says to the teacher: "You must teach these books whether you care for them or not," and to the pupil it says: "You must be coached on these books and be ready to write interesting papers on them, or you won't get into the university." I can think of no better recipe than that for deadening the nerves of sympathy and enthusiasm.

Evidences abound showing that in some of the eastern preparatory schools the feudal idea reacts powerfully on the teaching of English. To quote the words of a Harvard instructor who has had considerable experience:

"One of the gravest faults which underlie the whole system is that the training in English is given not for the lasting benefit of the student, but to enable him to pass the Harvard entrance examination; when he has read the required books and written a composition, when he is stuffed with the necessary facts and supposed to be able to bring them out as occasion calls, his education in English is complete."¹

Still stronger evidence is furnished by those very frank autobiographies of Harvard students published in 1897 by the Harvard Committee on Rhetoric and Composition. I will quote a few of them:

"The great fault of the preparatory school is that it simply prepares, and does not lay a permanent foundation for knowledge. I was often told at (the New Hampshire Academy, where I was prepared): 'Now, this is simply to make you ready for the examination; you'll probably forget all about it afterwards.'"

"The fifth year was spent in preparing us for the preliminary examinations. As English was not one of them, they considered it as a secondary subject. The only Eng-

¹B. S. HURLBUT, in *Twenty Years of School and College English*, p. 49.

lish we had was the reading of some of Shakespear's plays. Although we were continually being warned not to make such blunders in our sight translations, and that our papers would not be accepted over at Harvard if they contained such English.

"Finally, in the sixth year, they tried to make up for lost time in teaching English. They seemed to teach it to us for the sole purpose of making us pass the examination, because they continually used examination papers as references, and they said all the time that we must do this or that if we expected to pass the examination."

"It seems to me that the all-pervading idea of the school was not so much to give us a lasting knowledge of the English language, but rather to force enough of the rudiments of the language into our heads so that we should be able to pass the examinations for Harvard. When we made a mistake in anything the teacher would say that they marked this very hard at Harvard; instead of merely telling us that it was bad English."

"Then I thought that I was thoroughly prepared to take the Harvard examinations. I was told to 'cram' on Milton's works, as there would certainly be questions on the paper based upon them. I obeyed orders. The last of June found me taking the examination. I was greatly surprised when I read the paper to find that it was based upon Longfellow's *Evangeline*, and other books which I had studied in the grammar school and which I had not read for years."

"For four years I studied (in a New Hampshire Academy). Professor ——'s object in teaching English is to prepare men for the entrance examination to Harvard College. He told us the fact on the first day, and four years later ended his 'good-byes' by giving directions how to pass the examinations most successfully."

Such statements as "this last year's work was all right as a preparation for the examination," "our first duty was to make ready for the Harvard examination in English," "after all, young men go to school to pass the college examinations," occur in many of the other papers; but perhaps the most significant utterance is the following: "Harvard overseers hold up our English to ridicule and ask, Why? Do they expect preparatory schools to teach English without incentive? How foolish!"

If we turn now to the organic system, we shall find, if

not a better, at least a very different set of influences. Under this system entrance requirements, which play so important a part in the feudal system, can hardly be said to exist. The term is a misnomer borrowed from the feudal conception. If it is retained at all, it must be interpreted from the point of view of the schools, as well as from the point of view of the university. That is to say, entrance requirements, organically conceived, are not only the demands which the university makes upon those who are to be admitted to the privileges of the higher education; they are quite as much the demands made by the principals and teachers of the secondary schools upon the pupils who are to represent those schools at the university. Thus interpreted, the requirements, from either point of view, are simply the normal educational processes by which young persons of high school age attain to a healthy intellectual development. What these processes may be is a matter to be determined by schools and colleges acting conjointly and bringing to bear on the problem their combined wisdom and experience, each deferring to the other in minor points in order to secure the completest possible adjustment in essentials.

Logically, then, in reply to secondary school teachers who ask, What are your requirements in English? a university working under the organic system ought to reply: "We make no formal requirements. We only point to our needs. What we want is young men and women whose literary instincts are normal and whose literary habits are good. We want students who know what good literature is and enjoy reading it; who can express themselves with a fair degree of ease and accuracy; and who have a taste for what is simple and sincere, as opposed to what is tawdry, or mawkish, or vulgar, in their own writing and the writing of their fellow students. Send us young persons thus equipped and we shall make no further requirement." And if the teachers, somewhat taken aback by this sudden and unexpected concession, should ask further, How are these good results to be secured? the university might logically answer: "That, primarily, is your business. It is you teachers who will mould the pupil's mind and character by your daily communion with him. Therefore it is you teachers who must take the initiative and the responsibility, whether in determining the method of teaching, in laying out the courses of instruction, or in meeting day by day the unforeseen exigencies of

the class room." Indeed, under ideal conditions the university might go so far as to say to the English teacher: "Do what you think best. Let your course in English extend over four years or one year, or abolish it altogether. Have a course in rhetoric or have it not. Require your pupils to write once a day or once a year. Read ten books at a snail's pace or read two hundred books at headlong speed. In short, follow your own bent and your own judgment, provided only you send us young men and women who respect their mother tongue and know how to use it. If you want advice, or want to know more definitely what our ideas are, we are ready and eager to give information. But we do not prescribe, we do not dictate."

This, I repeat, is what the university, under ideal conditions, might confidently say to the principals and teachers of English in our high schools. Under ideal conditions, I say; but conditions, as we all know, are not everywhere ideal, either as regards principals or as regards teachers of English. In the first place, the organic conception, although I have spoken of it so confidently, and although I believe in it so firmly, is still in the subconscious stage. To most persons it is as about tangible as the unity of society. Even in my own state, where, if anywhere, it should rise above the threshold of consciousness, there are few secondary teachers¹ who do not now and then revert to the ideas and the terminology of the feudal conception. Not long ago I had some correspondence with one of our principals in regard to the English courses in his school. Among the questions he asked were these: "Would a two-hour rhetoric course in the sophomore year satisfy the requirements of the university in rhetoric?" "Does the university prescribe an order in which the books required for admission shall be read?" "Will one essay every two months be satisfactory to the department of English?" And so on. He had got into his mind the pestilent heresy that when he had provided what the printed statements in the university calendar called for, his duty was fulfilled; when he had done that much the university (he vaguely felt) ought to step in

¹To say nothing of members of the University faculty. A respected colleague with whom I conversed recently about some of our accredited schools, was so recalcitrant and spiritually inorganic as to affirm that in his view the certificate system was rotten to the core. But he would probably say the same thing about the examination system.

and assume responsibility for the results. To a principal in such a frame of mind the university naturally hesitates to say, "Make the requirements in English anything you please." The principal might indeed accept the challenge in the spirit in which it was made. Probably he would do so. But there is some likelihood that when he was hard pressed by the claims of other subjects, he would feel warranted in letting some part of the English work drop; not because he believed it ought to be dropped, but because to drop it would be to follow the line of least resistance.

This desire to escape responsibility is sometimes seen in the teachers as well as in the principal; but in them it arises from a different cause. In the case of the teachers it arises from the fact that they are not so well trained as they should be for the specific duties that are laid upon them. This is particularly true of teachers of rhetoric and composition. We all know teachers of these subjects, of the best disposition in the world, earnest, enthusiastic, conscientious to a fault, who, because they have no special training for this particular business, are pitifully dependent upon others for their ideas and their methods. With no solid grounding in the fundamental principles of their subject, they are at the mercy of every text-book and magazine article. A new definition of rhetoric or a new device in teaching composition is to them a kind of a miracle. They cannot place it. They live all their lives in a state of vacillation between antagonistic theories. Upon such teachers the university does not like to throw the whole responsibility of determining how much English shall be taught and in what manner it shall be taught.

Finally, among the unideal conditions should be mentioned the present means of communication between the high school and the university. At present it is long before the high school teacher of English learns whether in the eyes of the university the fruits of his work are good or not. Perhaps he never learns, or learns only in a haphazard way. The university has no medium for communicating to him promptly, and at frequent intervals, its estimate of the English of his former pupils. Nor in most cases is there any convenient way by which the teachers of English can receive from the university instant help and advice in an emergency.

These obstacles to the working of the organic system of requirements will doubtless be removed by degrees. Mean-

while, what should be the attitude of the university? In general it may be said that inasmuch as ideals are things that we may approach but never can attain to, it probably always will be necessary for the university to lay down certain requirements in English; but these will, I am sure, as time goes on, depart more and more from the rigid prescriptions of the feudal system. They will take the form of statements of proficiency in composition and of appreciation of literature, corresponding to the attainments of the average pupils in the best high schools. To these will be added hints and suggestions of methods of teaching that have been found to be effective in actual practice. As for the lists of books that have excited so much discussion of late, I imagine that here in the West we shall always be in favor of the largest liberty of choice. Under the organic conception uniformity, except in the sense of agreement regarding standards and ideals of proficiency, has but slight significance. The tendency is rather toward the wide diversity congenial to differences in environments, teachers, and types of students. For this reason the open revolt against the list of books named by the Joint Committee on Uniform Requirements in English, seems to me to be one of the most significant evidences that have recently come to light, of a healthy organic life in our educational institutions.¹

But entrance requirements, as I have shown, must not be interpreted from the point of view of the university alone. I should be false to my theory if I did not point out how this liberal attitude of the university lays duties upon the schools; or if it does not lay duties, at least makes it fitting for the schools to take duties upon themselves. The first duty relates to the principals. If the attitude of the university is such as I have described, it then becomes the duty of the principals to cultivate a great tenderness of conscience with regard to secondary English. Freedom, like nobility, confers obligation. Now and then one hears a principal say, with the earnestness of conviction: "I allow nothing to interfere with English. Other studies may have to give way occasionally, but English never." I wish more could say this truthfully. I do not mean that I am jealous for a certain number of hours or a certain number of exercises.

¹My words will not be less pointed if I say that as a member of that committee I helped make the list.

What I want is the spirit, the respectful attitude. I would rather have in a high school an English course of but one hour a week with the understanding that it should never, on any pretext, be set aside, than a course of five hours a week with the understanding that a part of the students might, on some plea or other, at any time be excused from it.

The second and most important obligation, however, rests with the teachers. They hold the key to the situation: Upon their fitness or unfitness for their specific tasks hang the fortunes of secondary instruction. If the teachers know their business the requirements will take care of themselves. It is the duty, therefore, of every teacher of English who realizes his great responsibility, to give himself as thorough a training for his work as it is possible for him to obtain. Opportunity for good training is now generally available. Teachers' courses in English literature have been offered for many years in almost every university in this country, both in the regular sessions and in the summer schools. More recently teachers' courses in rhetoric and composition have been established, and although there is as yet some confusion in regard to the aims of such courses, the improvement which they have wrought in enlarging the resources of the teachers and enhancing the interest and value of their work, is distinctly appreciable. These courses are now the most adequate means through which the secondary teachers and the university can hold communion and effect interchange of opinion. I look for a great increase of interest in this work, and I venture the prophecy that if these courses are properly fostered in the university and heartily supported in the schools, the grade of intelligence and of resource in our teachers will so advance during the next decade as completely to transform the spirit and method of secondary English. We shall then be a long way on the road to a solution of the problem of entrance requirements.

The discussion was continued by Mr. C. H. Thurber, of Boston; Principal Armstrong, of Englewood High School; and Principal Harris, of Cleveland.

PRINCIPAL ARMSTRONG, referring to a statement by Professor WHITNEY, said that he was not fearful of over-inspection. On the contrary, his school, he regretted to say, was too frequently passed by. He did not like the hurried visits at long intervals made on the

assumption that large city schools of established reputation might safely be left to themselves. He preferred frequent visits and searching inspection and felt that his school had much to gain by them. If the school was doing well he wanted assurances of the fact; if it was going wrong he wanted helpful criticism. The college on its side had also much to gain by the inspection. By this means the college man could come into closer sympathy with the needs of the common people. Referring to the strictures of President Kirk, the speaker said that for his part he liked college graduates as teachers and was ready to make allowances for their inexperience. The fact that their ideals were higher than those of their fellow-teachers was not to be regretted. On the contrary such high ideals, even though they seemed impracticable, exercised a good influence on the school.

At the close of the discussion the secretary announced that the executive committee had made the following recommendations for membership. On motion they were adopted.

Institutional member: Muscatine High School, Iowa.

Individual member: Professor Stanley Coulter, of Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.

The meeting then adjourned to 9:30 a. m., Saturday, March 30.

At 6:30 p. m. about thirty members of the Association sat down to an informal dinner in the dining-room of the Auditorium Hotel. The dinner was followed by informal speeches, Chancellor W. S. Chaplin, of Washington University, St. Louis, acting as toastmaster.

THIRD SESSION, SATURDAY MORNING.

The association was called to order at 9:30 a. m. by President Aiton.

The reading of papers was resumed.

SHOULD INDUSTRIAL AND LITERARY SCHOOLS BE COMBINED OR ENCOURAGED TO SEPARATE?

BY DEAN E. A. BIRGE, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

Dean Birge spoke in substance as follows:

The question assigned to me for discussion concerns a matter of practice rather than one of theory. Literary and industrial schools have been established in combination and also as separate institutions. Both plans have worked to the satisfaction of the founders of the schools and of those who are carrying them on. The question, therefore, cannot be answered decisively either in the affirmative, or in the negative. Each method has advantages of its own and has its own disadvantages.

In discussing such a question as this, general considerations are of little importance. I shall not attempt, therefore, to argue the question from any general point of view. What I have to say in favor of the union of technical and industrial with general courses of study will be drawn almost solely from my own experience as a member of the University of Wisconsin, in which technical courses of very various grades are carried on in the same institution with literary and scientific courses.

There are certain obvious advantages of combination which I need only name. Such are the various economies in administration, buildings, etc. These are worthy of passing notice, but should have little weight against a possible pedagogical advantage in the separation of the courses.

A more important advantage lies in what I may call the economy of teaching. A number of subjects must be included in a technical course which belong naturally to the general courses of an institution. The various courses of instruction in English and in foreign languages are examples of such studies. So long as an institution is small, the students in the technical courses can be taught in the same classes with those of the literary courses. Such a combination may easily increase the size of a department to an extent which will justify the employment of a better professor, or of a larger number of instructors than either of the courses would warrant if taken by itself. In any case, as the institution grows and these departments increase in numbers and in the size of their teaching force, the technical school shares the advantage of a better organization and better supervision given to the elementary work in the large department—supervision and instruction of a kind which would scarcely be warranted by the needs of the technical school itself. In this direction lies, I think, one great advantage to the technical school of union with literary courses.

Another advantage in the same direction concerns the teacher of these subjects. The work of these classes in the technical school hardly goes beyond the elements of the subject, and if the teacher of foreign language, for instance, is confined in his work to the teaching of engineering students only, he is likely to feel dissatisfied with his place and with his work; because he has no opportunity for carrying on his teaching into the higher work, in which much of his own interest ought to lie. If, however, he can be given classes both in the literary and the technical courses, he can secure teaching of a higher grade and, feeling that his natural ambitions for advanced teaching are being met, will do all of his work in a better way and with greater spirit. No teacher likes to feel himself merely an accessory to other departments; and no teacher who has in him real capacity for his profession, can do his best work if he finds himself in such a position.

Another advantage in the combination of industrial and literary courses lies in the *esprit de corps* of the technical school. It is quite possible to confine the work of the technical school to strictly technical courses. I think, however, that, as a matter of fact, most of our technical schools give general courses, scientific or other, in connection with their more strictly professional work. I cannot feel that this

arrangement is an advantage to the technical school. Much of the *esprit de corps* of a technical course depends on the segregation of the technical students from those whose aims in study are different. In a university where both technical and literary education are equally recognized, the students who have chosen each line of study go by themselves, and the temper of each course is correspondingly heightened. This is especially true of the technical school, whose professional temper is not modified by an admixture of students who do not intend to follow the profession for which the technical course is a preparation.

It might be thought that where these various courses are given in the same institution there would be a considerable influence of one class of students upon the other and a good deal of passing back and forth between the technical and general courses. In our own institution I have always been surprised to see how widely different in tone and temper the engineering students are from those in the general course. The students in the scientific courses, who might be expected to resemble the engineering students rather than their fellows of the literary courses, are in reality very much closer in temper to the latter than they are to the students of engineering. The latter indeed have the temper of their profession from the first quite unmixed from the spirit of the general courses.

The number of students who transfer from one line of study to the other is very small. Students seem to make up their minds before going to the university whether they will study engineering or not. The transfers from the engineering to the literary courses do not exceed half a dozen a year—are probably even fewer than this small number—and those who pass from the general courses to engineering are equally few.

Thus in all directions the union of the technical and general courses in the University of Wisconsin has worked to the advantage of both lines of education. I am quite aware that under other conditions and with administration of a less fortunate kind than that which we have had, injury might have resulted either to the technical or to the general courses. Had one line of education been pushed forward and the other unduly held back, friction and dissatisfaction would undoubtedly have resulted. But I am sure that I speak the judgment of our faculty when I say that the combination in our own university has been most fortunate.

There is still another line of technical education which we are very glad to see united with the general literary courses. This is the agricultural instruction, and especially that included in our short course in agriculture and our dairy school. In these courses several hundred young men from various parts of the state are brought to the university for strictly practical and technical instruction for three months during the winter. These students are necessarily taught by themselves and, from the nature of the case, cannot receive instruction in the regular classes of the university. Yet I am sure that the faculty of the College of Agriculture feel that it is a great advantage that these students are brought upon the grounds of the university and share its life even to a limited extent. In certain practical directions the College of Agriculture is advantaged by the union. Our professor of political economy gives a course of lectures on economic subjects for the benefit of these students; doubtless a broader and better course than they could obtain if they were taught at an institution of secondary grade. But such advantages as this are small in comparison with the gain which these young men make by their association with the life of the university, even though this is necessarily brief. They go back to their homes with a very different understanding of the University and a very different feeling toward it from that which they would have if their instruction were given to them in an institution of another class.

Still further, we at Wisconsin like to feel that it is the business of the State University to carry the principles of science into the arts of life and not merely to carry on research or to give a general education to the students who come to us. We have no disposition to quarrel with the educational policies of those states which have separated the general university training from the technical schools, yet, for our own part, we prefer that the people of the state should all be looking toward our university for instruction and guidance, not only in the higher education in its narrower sense, but in every direction in which those who are trained for research and higher teaching can make their own intellectual gains serviceable to the life of the people. We believe that the State University should offer graduate instruction of the highest grade, should carry on research, should give the best possible general training to those students who desire it, but we believe also that its functions

are helpful to the people of the state in every direction in which a great central educational institution can be of service.

One word in closing in regard to the separation of practical and general instruction in secondary schools. I speak on this subject with much diffidence, since I am by no means fully acquainted with the problems of the secondary schools. Yet I cannot forbear saying that I should regret greatly the separation of manual training schools from the regular high school courses. I fear that such separation would lead inevitably to the separation of our secondary schools into two classes; one for those who desire culture and higher training, while the other would tend to become more and more a trade school and would be regarded as distinctly a school for the working people. In a word, I should greatly regret such a division of our high schools into classes which might be paralleled by the *Volkschule* and the *Gymnasium* in Germany. The peculiar value of our school system for the people of the United States has lain in the fact that it has offered equal opportunities to the children born into every grade of society, and it would be no small change to make a division of the schools at the high school grade of such a kind that the youth from different social classes would naturally go into different schools. The stronghold of democracy in this country is in its school system, and only the most imperative reasons should lead us to consider for a moment a change which could in any way injure their democratic spirit.

PRINCIPAL G. B. MORRISON, of the Kansas City Manual Training High School (communication to the secretary): Manual training is today passing through the same experience that working laboratory science passed through twenty years ago. The commercial and industrial condition of our country makes the introduction of the hand a necessary supplement to the head in preparing for the average type of citizenship. The results of recent experience in the best manual training high schools have forced upon us a fact which may be formulated as a principle, viz.: That the amount of academic work which a student can do in four years is not diminished by incorporating a properly

correlated course in manual training, but is actually increased by it.

In answer, then, to the question under discussion as to whether manual training schools and literary schools should combine or be encouraged to separate, I would say that if there are existing manual training schools which have not already combined with literary branches, it is time that they were doing so, and on the other hand I would say that if there are literary schools which have not added some form of manual training to their course of study, it is time that such a step were seriously considered. As to whether it should all be under one roof must depend on the enrollment and on other local conditions.

In my opinion, the present existence of two types of secondary schools is merely an incident in the period of transition through which we are now passing; the final adjustment will culminate in a new type which will be normal to the present age. This will be realized when manual training as a factor in education becomes a generally recognized norm.

DEAN EUGENE DAVENPORT, of the University of Illinois: What I shall say upon this subject in the very few moments at my disposal will be based upon a firm conviction that, for a people who have reached the degree of civilization we have attained and whose form of government and traditional beliefs are fundamentally democratic, that educational policy is most sound which brings into the closest possible association all forms of higher education and all individuals who are ambitious to learn what the world can teach. This is because such a policy will counteract any tendency of our people to break up into classes, with social, political or educational distinctions based upon professional considerations, and because it will tend to preserve a certain coherence and that mutual respect and sympathy between people of different occupations so necessary to the successful maintenance of free institutions.

As the stock of human knowledge increases the subject matter for higher learning is vastly broadened, and, as the masses of the people develop and feel the benefits of learning, the demand naturally arises for instruction in new and hitherto unheard-of lines. To meet these new demands new

schools have been organized and new courses have been outlined and elective systems arranged in many of the older institutions; in short, the ingenuity of educators has been taxed to provide what is asked and still preserve the traditions of the schools, which, being of necessity conservative institutions, find difficulty in keeping pace with our rapidly advancing civilization.

I suppose that two propositions may be assumed without fear of contradiction, viz., first, that the coming of these new demands into the field of higher learning vastly complicates our educational problems, and, second, that the easiest way to settle the matter is by establishing separate schools for each distinct demand. However, this is but the first crude effort to adjust our educational policies to the development of the people. We are by no means sure that this plan is the best one, because the problem most certainly has been solved in numerous instances upon the other plan. Besides this, the affiliations that are now being so frequently arranged between distinctly technical schools and the older and well established universities, have a significant bearing upon the question in hand.

The demands for learning along new lines do not indicate a spontaneous breaking up of our people into corresponding classes, but rather a development of the masses along many lines. If these schools be separated, classes will form along lines corresponding to occupations, but if they be combined a general elevation of educational standards among the masses will result, a consummation devoutly to be wished according to my way of thinking, even though a few of our household gods be slightly jostled in the process of new adjustments.

To be specific: If these schools separate they will educate distinctly different classes of people with entirely different and often diverse standards and ideas of life. These differences necessarily become strong through life experiences and tend unduly to separate later on, but to anticipate them sufficiently to determine college associations is to plant the seeds of disorganization among the very leaders of civilization, because it systematically establishes educational distinctions based entirely upon occupation, which is only another way of subordinating a man to his profession, professional men to all others, and of introducing a dry rot into our civilization.

To separate these schools is to accentuate differences

already too marked between students pursuing studies based upon what has come down to us from former civilizations and others pursuing those that are distinctively connected with our own.

To separate these schools is to confess a degree of incompatibility; it is to lend color to the vicious assumption that culture for culture's sake is the only true basis of education, and that utility is to be carefully excluded from all higher education. It is to close the eyes to the fact that the study of law or medicine is as utilitarian as is any branch of engineering, and that to study history, literature or philosophy as a profession is as truly utilitarian as to study any branch of agricultural science.

To combine these schools is to insure that students in all courses will be associated intimately and constantly during the school age with representative types of their own civilization, and the natural attrition of these students engaged in study along many lines ancient and modern, philosophical and scientific, cultural and technical, speculative and utilitarian, is in itself a liberal education for prospective American citizens who are afterwards to live together and set up and carry out multitudes of enterprises that have no connection whatever with the particular means by which the individuals secure their bread and butter.

To combine these schools is to economize the teaching of such subjects as mathematics and the natural sciences in which all students of all courses are interested. In so far as the centralization of schools results in the centralization of science, to the same extent will its development be assured, particularly along lines of applied science, and in proportion as the schools are divided, so will it suffer by dilution.

To combine these schools is to breed a healthy regard among literary people for the material welfare of the time and a more rational appreciation of all the elements of greatness in a people. The same plan will also favor greater attention to the humanities on the part of so-called technical students than is likely in separate schools, a consideration greatly to be desired for reasons not necessary to enumerate here, upon which educators will at once agree.

To combine these schools is certainly to introduce difficulties as to admission because of the varied requirements of different courses. This, however, is not altogether undesirable from its tendency toward more liberal systems of admission—good in itself—besides necessitating more rigid

conditions as to graduation. To combine these schools is also to stimulate the elective system and to emphasize the department rather than the course of instruction.

I must not pass unnoticed the fact that attempts to combine these schools have been attended with troubles of their own, most noticeable of all in the founding of agricultural colleges in connection with pre-existing universities or literary colleges. In numerous instances of this order the literary people strongly resented this invasion of time-honored customs and seemed to consider a general breaking up of educational standards as imminent. It is significant, however, that these same people and schools had previously assumed the same attitude toward the sciences, whose entire respectability no one pretends to call in question now, and whose standing in the schools is now assured.

Granted that it is more difficult to operate these schools together than separate, and that the attempt gives rise to new and somewhat troublesome questions, shall we not stay with them and work out a solution in line with American institutions rather than assume it as impossible or inadvisable only because it presents some difficulties not hitherto encountered? To do otherwise is to confess our weakness in dealing with such educational problems as naturally arise in a rapidly advancing civilization, which is cowardice, or else it is to permit and to foster the development of distinct classes based upon considerations of occupations and crystallized and fixed by the school system, which is un-American and perilous in the extreme.

What has been said is based upon the following principles, if they may be dignified with so respectable a term: First, that a portion of every man's educational efforts should be devoted to particular lines in order that he may acquire power; second, that if, like most men, he is to follow a profession of some kind, then this specialization should be in line with that profession; and, third, that every man, whether professional or not, should be not only induced but compelled to give large attention to matters entirely outside of his specialty in order that he may acquire breadth of view and generous sympathy touching institutions and men with which in the present he must live as well as those which in the past contributed to our present estate.

It may be proper to add that the views herein expressed have been the result of some twenty-five years' association with the work of agricultural colleges, both with those exist-

ing for agriculture alone, and those connected with universities. It is certainly true that in the earlier days of agricultural education the detached institutions had decidedly the advantage. They were free from the prejudice of over conservative people who had been disposed to freeze out even science from the colleges and had but little tolerance and certainly no patience with the idea of higher education for farmers, and these separated colleges were thus left to work out the problem as best they might; but in later years and since agricultural science has won some sort of standing it is most certainly true that the universities are not only presenting the most favorable opportunities for study in general science, language, literature, history, economics and such other lines as command the attention of educated men in general, but they are also offering superior advantages for technical work in agriculture.

This brings me to the last argument I shall offer in favor of combining these schools: viz., in place of that natural competition that is inevitable between separate institutions with common needs yet dependent upon the people for support, a combination will bring about a degree of mutual helpfulness difficult to realize until it has been experienced.

One word of caution, which would seem unnecessary were there not so many evidences of its need. A visitor sees a student working at the forge or at the churn. He jumps to the conclusion that he is learning to be a blacksmith or a butter-maker and that what he is doing is mere handicraft whose introduction into our colleges will certainly degrade standards. Let this good visitor pause.—If these people are working under empirical directions it is handicraft and not college work, but if they are engaged in the study of the relation of heat to malleability in different metals or of temperature and ripeness to churnability and quality—it is not handicraft but is as truly college work as is laboratory study in chemistry or an essay upon a Greek root.

This is a time of new things. A civilization is growing up about us with needs of its own. These needs cannot be easily met. Old standards will not always answer, and really it matters little whether they are old or new, only so they are good standards. Do not run away from this question nor yet settle it prematurely. It will never be settled until it is settled right and in line with the spirit of the institutions of your own time, and until the educational development of the masses of the people is the matter first in the mind of

educators. President Hadley's recent remarks have a significance, and these are days for the coming together of things and not for separation.

Dean Birge's paper was also discussed by Principal W. J. S. Bryan, of the St. Louis High School; Director George N. Carman, of Lewis Institute; Principal Ballou, of the Toledo High School; Professor Stanley Coulter, of Purdue University, and Professor Thomas Moran, of Purdue University.

ELECTIVES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

BY PRESIDENT JAMES H. BAKER, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO.

I asked a man, whose opinion on the subject of electives I had solicited, why he did not respond to the inquiry. He replied that he had nothing new to say, and was awaiting the outcome of experiments by the radicals. I might have refused on similar grounds to prepare this paper, having little new to say, although an interested observer of all later tendencies.

Assuming an acquaintance with recent discussions on the subject of electives printed in various school journals, I make no reference to them. To secure fresh opinions and reports of experiments, I sent an inquiry to the Superintendents of Schools and Principals of High Schools in the fifty largest cities of the United States. Forty replies have been received. Of these, ten favor considerable election in secondary education, and thirty are conservative. Of the forty, fifteen would offer a choice of courses; nine would have but one course, with more or less electives; eleven favor little or no election in any form; five favor free election, but three of these make a proviso for certain constants.

From a number of the letters I quote briefly, the selections being made without bias. I consider these opinions of much value, and a genuine contribution to the discussion now going on.

Principal Edward V. Robinson, St. Paul, Minn.: My contention is that as soon as several courses are offered an elective system is established; and that this system, in prac-

tical operation, results in more scrappy work and wasted effort than almost any other conceivable form of it. I would therefore consolidate everything into one general course, in which the studies common to all the courses should be designated as "required," and the others as "optional." We should then get away from the unspeakable absurdities found in every school where the old system is in operation. And I would furthermore have an iron-clad rule that nothing except a couple of the sciences should count toward graduation unless a full year of it be completed; and that at least two years of any foreign language be required in order to be counted. In general, I think freedom of choice is a good thing all along the line, provided it be on some rational plan. My objection to the several-course plan is that it is not rational.

Superintendent W. N. Hailmann, Dayton, O.: Full freedom of choice as to subjects of study has a place, in my opinion, only in colleges, universities and technical schools. Limited freedom, presented in the guise of a variety of courses, is admissible in high schools, but there are certain lines of study, relating chiefly to English Literature, History, Civics, and Art, which every course should contain.

Superintendent James H. Van Sickle, Baltimore, Md.: When we come to secondary education I am quite certain that considerable freedom of choice is desirable. It is easy enough to decide upon certain basal requirements which may constitute, say, one-half the course for each pupil, and to allow considerable freedom of choice beyond these requirements. Pupils should not be allowed to take a study which is not a natural sequence of one which has been successfully pursued; and it goes without saying, that a pupil must not be allowed to take a study which is in advance of his attainments. I believe such an adjustment of work, with some provision for difference in capacity and health of the pupil, is in the interests of thorough scholarship, while rigid requirements all through the course and the holding of pupils to the same amount of work lead to superficiality on the part of the weaker pupils, and to too little effort on the part of the stronger pupils. I believe in limited election of studies and in such adjustment as will enable a bright and able pupil to complete the curriculum in a shorter time than is necessary in the case of a pupil of mediocre intellect.

Superintendent W. H. Elson, Grand Rapids, Mich.: I may say that my present view with reference to electives is that they offer the means for making the high school what

it ought to be, an institution adapting itself to the needs of children in their varying interests and capacities and serving the needs of the community. Modern life has become so complex that many new avenues are open to young people of both sexes, so that the professions are no longer the avenues whereby young people have to choose between a life of menial service, so-called, and a life of intellectual trend. My own experience with electives in secondary education has been, on the whole, very satisfactory. It is, of course, too early to furnish data that are conclusive, but the indications are all favorable. However, you understand that my own experience with electives has been of a restricted kind, namely, certain groups of studies have been required; but probably an average of thirty-three per cent in the different lines of study has been elected by the pupil.

Superintendent R. G. Boone, Cincinnati, O.: I am in entire sympathy with the general movement toward larger freedom in the use of courses of study both for secondary and higher education. For secondary work I should require a certain amount of work as a minimum in English, History and Civics, Science, Mathematics, and Ancient or Modern foreign languages, to the extent of about one-half to two-thirds of the course, allowing free electives for the remainder of the work, provided the electives be taken in a reasonably connected and integrated way. With these provisions I see no danger in elective systems for either secondary or collegiate training.

Principal Charles C. Ramsay, Fall River, Mass.: An experience of eight years under this system (a regulated elective system as a part of the general course of study) has proved very satisfactory. The number of special or unclassified pupils has diminished about seventy-five per cent; and I think that the pupils, in general, do more and better work.

Principal W. W. Grant, Scranton, Pa., formerly Principal of Indianapolis High School: [For twelve years has used wide choice of electives, with a few required subjects.] This plan cultivates the individual and therefore I prefer it. The arrangement of a programme does not present insurmountable difficulties.

Superintendent W. C. Martindale, Detroit, Mich.: In our high schools a change of course of study has recently been made by which students are permitted to elect under direction a certain part of their course. Our people are very much

pleased with the new arrangement as it does away completely with courses in our high schools.

Director C. B. Wood, Pittsburgh, Pa.: We find electives very desirable. They enable us to keep certain pupils in school who would otherwise drop out. They enable the student to select work more in accord with his adaptability—make work more agreeable and thus more efficient.

A. F. Nightingale, Superintendent of High Schools, Chicago: Our programme this year is working finely and we expect that it will go on from glory to glory. To reach the individual should be the aim of our efforts.

Superintendent L. H. Jones, Cleveland, O.: I have never been nor am I now in favor of electives to be chosen entirely by pupils or even by parents in the elementary or high schools; but rather an opportunity for electives, when teachers, parents and pupils have, through the combined study of particular cases, discovered real necessities for choice.

Principal James E. Morrow, Allegheny, Pa.: Concerning the working of electives—Good students are benefited and opportunity is afforded worthless students to shirk. The plan implies the exercise of good judgment by or on behalf of the student. Those going to college who are earnest students derive great benefit. It has, however, largely increased the work of our teachers, and made schedule-making difficult, with the limited number of hours given us. We think of limiting the elective system to the last two years of our four years' work.

Superintendent W. F. Slaton, Atlanta, Ga.: I think that the power to choose curricula on the part of the pupils should be sparingly given. In a large majority of cases children have not judgment to know what is the best for them. They do not look into the future sufficiently far to choose a course of study adapted to their future work in life, for they have chosen no work; nor have they the remotest idea whether they will be day laborers, merchants, doctors, preachers, lawyers, or school-teachers. Large freedom of choice in elementary education is working disastrously in the cause of education, in a large majority of cases.

Superintendent E. H. Mark, Louisville, Ky.: I have very serious doubts about the ability of high-school pupils to select those subjects which are best fitted to prepare them for life work. We have two places in our high schools where pupils are allowed to elect, and it has been our experience that the subjects which are best adapted to give mental vigor

and to develop mental power are never elected. Pupils always take the subjects requiring the least preparation and least study. In fact, if those studies which are known to give the greatest mental strength are made elective, along with those having less value and requiring less effort, pupils always elect the latter.

Principal John N. Greer, Minneapolis, Minn.: In my judgment electives in high schools are not proper except within proper limits. When students in their "teens" have a choice they simply will take the easiest. Schools that offer many electives soon disintegrate in scholarship and efficiency. The strong school is one with good backbone courses of study in which the stiffness is maintained.

Superintendent Francis Cogswell, Cambridge, Mass.: The pendulum has swung too far. I think electives have no place in schools of the lower grades, and only to a limited extent in high schools. No course of study should be so rigid as to prevent the graduation of a pupil because he failed to reach the required standard in some one subject when in other subjects he had done excellent work. He should have an opportunity to offer an equivalent for the subject in which he had failed. No one questions, I suppose, the advantages of electives in a college course.

Superintendent J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.: I favor considerable latitude in college and university work, much less in secondary education, and but very little, comparatively speaking, in elementary education. Too much in the way of electives is a degeneration in sound learning and is a refuge or subterfuge to get out of solid work. Since we threw the doors wide open in our high schools, I am confident the general scholarship has dropped considerably lower than it was when we had three courses only. This may be owing to the system of expansion that has been going forward in secondary education during the past ten or dozen years. Whatever the cause may be, the fact is indisputable.

Principal of a large Eastern High School: For my own part I should like to see our scientific course abolished, as it seems the refuge for all the lame and lazy of the school, and our scientific instructors are unable to devise a course of study which is equal, in educational value and demand upon attention and energy, to the other two.

Principal of a prominent New England High School: I thank God I graduated from a college before electives were thought of. The elective system at Harvard has just allowed

three of the poorest students I ever sent to college to get their diplomas in three years. I suppose they elected the soft courses, the maps, in which a mere smattering knowledge carried them through. Those who elect have not the wisdom necessary for election. This is true for both high schools and colleges.

Principal W. F. F. Swartzell, Eastern High School, Washington, D. C.: The large list of electives results in disintegration, scattering of forces, and multitudinous aims. The choices do not seem to be largely made with a view to some future pursuit, but often from influence of numbers choosing the subject or personality of the teacher, or some other incidental reason. Hence I am in favor of fewer electives and much simpler courses throughout the secondary years.

Principal C. G. Bellon, Toledo, O.: I am thoroughly convinced that the elective course, together with all elective studies, in our curriculum, should be abolished. I believe that elementary and secondary education should furnish a good broad solid foundation for higher education and future usefulness. It seems to me that in elementary schools the foundation of an education should be the same for all students. On reaching the secondary period of education a certain separation of courses is absolutely necessary, but, in the courses mapped out, there should be no election of studies. I am thoroughly convinced by experience that electives and elective courses in a secondary school lead to shallow scholarship, and breed a race of pedants—a race that desires to receive all honors due to training, but does not want to endure the labor attending the same.

Principal E. W. Coy, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, O.: I have seen but little of what they call free election in the high school, and I am of the opinion that but little of it exists except in talk. I have usually found that when you draw near the thing it disappears. I am not in favor of giving boys and girls the privilege of saying what they will study and what they will not. I am in favor of considering the aptitudes and tastes of boys and girls to some extent, and regulating within certain limits the courses that they shall each pursue. If that is all they mean by electives, they do not need to stir up so much dust about it. We all do that and have been doing it from time immemorial.

Superintendent R. H. Webster, San Francisco: Some years ago a plan was proposed and to quite an extent pro-

cuted which permitted pupils attending the secondary schools of this city and county to elect their studies. The result was a failure. The large majority of parents are incapable of selecting studies which are for the best interest of their children, and I regret to add that many are indifferent. The pupils are certainly too immature to formulate successfully a course of study for themselves. I am of the firm conviction that a course of study should be prescribed by experienced educators to be pursued by all youths whether attending high school or college under the age of nineteen. In fact it would be well to have a certain amount of prescribed work throughout a student's university course, allowing him an election of certain subjects which are pertinent to the profession or vocation that he believes he will pursue after graduation. My experience and observation as a university student induces this belief. I may state that this is beginning to be recognized at the University of California where the prescribed course was a rule of conduct twenty to twenty-five years ago, then it was gradually abandoned but is now being partially restored.

I think it safe to draw the inferences that every one would allow some limited choice, either between courses or between studies; that no one would have unrestricted freedom, and that such a proposition is an absurdity; that the differences of opinion are largely differences regarding methods in reaching results; that the prevailing judgment today is conservative and against very large election in secondary schools. As a personal view: There should be one General Course of study representing the fields of knowledge; at the end of the second year the Classical Course should branch from the General Course; whatever electives are permitted should be grafted on to this plan; election of the important fields of knowledge should not be allowed, but should be limited to studies within the fields; any departure from this scheme, for the individual, should be based on definite and sufficient grounds; to secure the building of good high schools in small towns a single course of study should be advocated for such schools.

This is an age of individualism, and to this fact is largely due the wonderful progress of the past century; but individualism has become extreme. This appears in such disregard of the duties and responsibilities of citizenship that the social aim in education has come to be one of the leading problems

of thought and investigation. This appears also in theories of psychology and education. Some clamor for provision of an unlimited variety in educational regimen, as if the human race represented all the animal types of a menagerie or of Noah's Ark ; they decline to recognize a *genus homo*, evolved through peculiar adaptations and heredity, possessing distinct characteristics, needs, and capabilities. Man is a being whose welfare is realized in development of self-consciousness and acquaintance with the culture of the race. During the period of general education his powers are to be trained, and he is to learn of his environment, physical and social. To this end language and literature, history, science and mathematics, art and ethics in some form, and to some extent physical expression are essential. To omit entirely any one of these during the period of secondary education, is to deprive the pupil of a right whose worth he is not yet able to appreciate. There are some things, aside from occupation, which belong to human beings as such—courage, temperance, wisdom, justice—and, we will add, knowledge of the phenomena and laws of nature, of quantitative relations, of the deeds of men, of the thoughts of men.

Pursuit of inclination is not a principle to be applied in elementary or secondary education; it is the doctrine of Romanticism, so successfully carried out by Faust under the guidance of the Devil. The child is a chaos of inclinations and impulses, and his education consists partly in emphasizing useful impulses and subordinating others—balancing the whole nature. To this end the best human wisdom, gained through experience and insight, and administered by wise and experienced teachers must be the guide. It may be asked—Why not allow pupil, parents, and teacher in each case to adjust the course of study, since a wise choice is thus frequently made? I object to this kind of perpetual multitudinous induction for every individual of each new generation, as unnecessary. Since there are educational standards and ideals it is better to recognize them and make individual adjustments a departure from normal requirements.

In my experience with schools, boys who are special students, not by force of circumstances, but by inclination and choice, are frequently unorganized and hopeless beings ; the place that has known them soon knows them no more—they quickly fall by the way and are seldom heard of afterward. Of such are made the loafers and mental vagabonds.

The question of special high schools is receiving much

attention. The view of the English Civil Service Commission, a view held in England since 1853, is a true one. I quote: "We believe that men who have been engaged, up to one or two and twenty, in studies which have no immediate connection with the business of any profession, and of which the effect is to open, to invigorate, and to enrich the mind, will generally be found in the business of every profession, superior to men who have at eighteen or nineteen devoted themselves to the special studies of their calling."

I recognize to the full extent the value of the principle of expression, and there can be no objection to the use of this principle in our schools, provided it extends merely to the training of eye and hand as basal to all special activities. Commercial schools in which three-fourths of the time should be given to general education and not more than one-fourth to special occupation might be useful. But some of the most radical tendencies of today will finally prove to be fads—and we must remember that there is a limit to the public purse. There may be a problem, not included in this discussion, of industrial training for some who can not take a complete high-school course.

America is not suffering from lack of a spirit of commercialism, but it is suffering from lack of high ideals of citizenship—practical ideals indispensable to the success of democracy. I am not concerned about the question of commercial supremacy—that will take care of itself, and it is not the highest interest of a people. History awards the greater glory not to Phœnicia but to Athens, not to Carthage but to Rome, not to the Sophists but to Socrates.

This paper was discussed by Professor G. A. Tawney, of Beloit College; Dr. Frances Dickinson, of Harvey Medical College, Chicago; Professor C. A. Waldo, of Purdue University; President John R. Kirk, of the Missouri State Normal School; Principal C. W. French, of Hyde Park High School, Chicago; Inspector A. S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan; and Mr. Herbert Miller, of the Jefferson High School, Chicago.

The committee appointed at the Friday morning session to consider the question of federating the North Central colleges and universities in the interest of uniform entrance requirements, reported through its chairman, Dean S. A. Forbes, of the University of Illinois, as follows:

To the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools:

Your committee has considered the subject assigned to it as carefully as the brief time at our disposal would permit and under a sense of responsibility, we hope, corresponding to the importance of the subject. We have not attempted to reach conclusions, or even to raise questions, on any of the issues involved in the establishment of fixed and uniform relations between the colleges and secondary schools, but have thought it best to leave the whole matter, subject to the instructions of the Association, to a permanent commission, whose appointment we recommend. This commission we have sought to make thoroughly representative, thoroughly responsible and practically efficient; and we believe that, if constituted in some such form as proposed, and inspired by the colleges with a determination to reach tangible results without delay, it will prove to be a very influential and important agency of educational progress. The propositions of the committee are presented in the following recommendation:

We recommend that the Association do now proceed to the establishment of some definite form of affiliation and credit, as fixed, comprehensive, and uniform as may be, between the colleges and universities of this Association and the secondary schools of the North Central states, and to this end we make the following further recommendations:

(1) That a permanent commission be formed to be called the *Commission on Accredited Schools* and to consist, first, of twelve members to be appointed by the Chair, six from the colleges and six representing the secondary schools; and second, of additional or delegate members one from each college or university belonging to the Association which has a freshman class of at least fifty members and which may appoint such a representative, together with a sufficient number of members from the secondary schools, to be appointed by the Chair, to maintain a parity of representation as between the secondary schools and the colleges. The term of service of the twelve members of the first class should be three years, two college representatives and two representatives of the secondary schools to be now appointed for one year, two of each for two years, and two of each for three years; and vacancies to be filled in the same man-

ner as the original appointments are made. The appointment of additional high school members should be for one year, subject, of course, to renewal by the appointing officer. We suggest that the President of this Association serve as temporary chairman of this commission until it has met and organized by the selection of its own officers.

(2) That it be made the duty of this commission to define and describe unit courses of study in the various subjects of the high school programme, taking for the point of departure the recommendations of the National Committee of Thirteen; to serve as a standing committee on uniformity of admission requirements for the colleges and universities of this Association; to take steps to secure uniformity in the standards and methods, and economy of labor and expense, in the work of high school inspection; to prepare a list of high schools within the territory of this Association which are entitled to the accredited relationship; and to formulate and report methods and standards for the assignment of college credit for good high school work done in advance of the college entrance requirement.

(3) We recommend that the expenses necessarily attendant upon the work of this commission be assumed by the colleges represented on it in proportion to membership in their freshman classes.

The committee assumes that this commission would usually hold at least annual meetings immediately preceding those of the Association itself, and in time to report its action to the Association for approval.

After considerable discussion the report was adopted without change. The president appointed the following persons as members of the Commission on Accredited Schools:

For one year: President E. B. Andrews, of the University of Nebraska; President G. E. MacLean, of the University of Iowa; President John R. Kirk, of the Missouri State Normal School, Kirksville; Director G. N. Carman, of the Lewis Institute, Chicago.

For two years: Dean Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago; Professor Stanley Coulter, of Purdue University; Superintendent A. F. Nightingale, of Chicago; Superintendent C. N. Kendall, of Indianapolis.

For three years: Dean E. A. Birge, of the University of Wisconsin; President James H. Baker, of the University of Colorado; Inspector A. S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan; Principal E. L. Harris, of Cleveland.

The secretary reported from the executive committee the following recommendations for membership, which were adopted by vote of the association:

Institutional members: University of Oklahoma; Lafayette High School, Indiana.

Individual member: Superintendent C. N. Kendall, Indianapolis, Ind.

President MacLean, as chairman of the committee appointed to select the time and place of the next meeting, reported that the dates chosen by the committee were Friday and Saturday, March 28 and 29, 1902; but that as regarded the place, the committee preferred to leave the decision to the Association. Two places had been suggested—Chicago and Cleveland. The committee was in favor of Cleveland.

By vote of the Association the dates recommended by the committee were adopted as the time of the seventh annual meeting. The question of place was vigorously debated, Dean Birge speaking in favor of Chicago as a central location, and President Harper pointing out the advantages of Cleveland. Principal Harris gave a cordial invitation to the Association to meet in the latter city, and urged as a reason for meeting there the educational influence which would be brought to bear upon the eastern portion of the territory embraced by the Association.

The discussion having closed, it was moved and carried that the next regular meeting of the Association be held in Cleveland.

The report of the auditing committee was then presented as follows, and, upon motion, was adopted:

CHICAGO, March 30, 1901.

Your auditing committee beg leave to report that they have examined the accounts of the treasurer for the year 1900-1901, and find them correctly cast, with adequate vouchers for all expenditures.

W. W. BEMAN,
J. O. LESLIE,
C. W. FRENCH.

The committee appointed to nominate officers of the Association for the ensuing year reported as follows:

For President: Chancellor W. S. Chaplin, of Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

For Vice-Presidents: *Ohio*, President J. H. Barrows, of Oberlin College; Principal E. L. Harris, of the Central High School, Cleveland. *Michigan*, Professor F. W. Kelsey, of the University of Michigan; Principal S. O. Hartwell, of Kalamazoo. *Indiana*, President W. P. Kane, of Wabash College, Crawfordsville; Superintendent Edward Ayres, of Lafayette. *Illinois*, President W. R. Harper, of the University of Chicago; Principal L. J. Block, of the Marshall High School, Chicago. *Wisconsin*, Professor J. W. Stearns, of the University of Wisconsin; Miss E. C. Sabin, President of Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee. *Minnesota*, Professor W. M. West, of the University of Minnesota; President F. A. Weld, of the Moorhead Normal School. *Iowa*, President G. E. MacLean, of the University of Iowa; President H. H. Seerley of the State Normal School, Cedar Falls. *Missouri*, President R. H. Jesse, of the University of Missouri; President J. R. Kirk, of the State Normal School, Kirks-

ville. *Nebraska*, President E. B. Andrews, of the University of Nebraska; Principal W. L. Davenport, of Lincoln. *Kansas*, Chancellor F. H. Snow, of the University of Kansas; Superintendent W. A. Davidson, of Topeka. *Colorado*, President J. H. Baker, of the University of Colorado; Principal W. H. Smiley, of High School No. 1, Denver.

For Secretary: Professor F. N. Scott, of the University of Michigan.

For Treasurer: Director G. N. Carman, of Lewis Institute, Chicago.

For members of the Executive Committee (in addition to the President, Secretary and Treasurer): Inspector G. B. Aiton, Minnesota; Professor C. A. Waldo, of Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.; Principal E. L. Harris, of Cleveland; Principal J. E. Armstrong, of Englewood High School, Chicago.

The association then adjourned.

CONSTITUTION OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

AS AMENDED AT THE THIRD ANNUAL MEETING, APRIL 1, 1898.

ARTICLE I.

NAME.

The name of this Association shall be the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

ARTICLE II.

OBJECT.

The object of the Association shall be to establish closer relations between the colleges and secondary schools of the North Central States.

ARTICLE III.

MEMBERSHIP.

SECTION 1. The members of the Association shall consist of the following two classes: First, colleges and universities, and secondary schools. Secondly, individuals identified with educational work within the limits of the Association.

Sec. 2. Election to membership shall require a two-thirds vote of the members present at any meeting, and shall be made only upon the nomination of the Executive Committee.

Sec. 3. In the membership of the Association, the representation of higher and of secondary education shall be as nearly equal as possible.

Sec. 4. An institutional member shall be represented at the meeting of the Association by its executive head, or by some one designated by him in credentials addressed to the Secretary.

Sec. 5. No college or university shall be eligible to membership whose requirements for admission represent less than four years of secondary work.

Sec. 6. No college or university shall be eligible to membership which confers the degree of Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Science except after a period of three years of graduate study, not less than two of which shall be years of resident study, one of which shall be at the institution conferring the degree.

SEC. 7. No secondary school shall be eligible to membership which does not have a four years' course of study.

ARTICLE IV.

POWERS.

All the decisions of the Association bearing upon the policy and management of higher and secondary institutions are understood to be advisory in their character.

ARTICLE V.

OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES.

SECTION 1. The officers of the Association shall be a President, two Vice-Presidents from each state represented in the Association, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and an Executive Committee consisting of the President, the Secretary, the Treasurer, and four other members elected by the Association.

SEC. 2. The officers shall be chosen at the annual meeting for the term of one year, or until their successors are elected. The election shall be by ballot.

SEC. 3. The Executive Committee shall have power to appoint committees for conference with other bodies, whenever in their judgment it may seem expedient.

SEC. 4. In case an officer holding office as representative of an institutional member severs his connection with the institution represented, he shall at his discretion hold his office until the close of the next regular meeting of the Association.

SEC. 5. The Executive Committee shall have authority to fill a vacancy in any office, the officer elected by the committee to hold office until the close of the next annual meeting.

ARTICLE VI.

DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

SECTION 1. The President, or in his absence one of the Vice-Presidents selected by the Executive Committee, shall preside at the meetings of the Association, and shall sign all orders upon the Treasurer.

SEC. 2. The Secretary shall keep a record of the proceedings of the Association and attend to all necessary correspondence and printing.

SEC. 3. The Treasurer shall collect and hold all moneys of the Association, and pay out the same upon the written order of the President.

SEC. 4. The Executive Committee shall make all nominations for membership in the Association, fix the time of all meetings not otherwise provided for, prepare programmes, and act for the Association when it is not in session. All the acts of the Executive Committee shall be subject to the approval of the Association.

CONSTITUTION.**ARTICLE VII.****MEETINGS.**

There shall be an annual meeting of the Association and such special meetings as the Association may appoint.

ARTICLE VIII.**MEMBERSHIP FEE.**

To meet expenses, an annual fee of \$3.00 shall be paid by each member, and each member shall have one vote.

ARTICLE IX.**QUORUM.**

One-fourth of the members of the Association shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE X.**AMENDMENTS.**

This constitution may be amended by a three-fourths vote at any regular meeting, provided that a printed notice of the proposed amendment be sent to each member two weeks before said meeting.

LIST OF MEMBERS, 1901 AND 1902.

Institutions.

(c. m., means charter member.)

OHIO.

Ohio State University, c. m., Columbus, President W. O. Thompson.
Western Reserve University, c. m., Cleveland, President Chas. F. Thwing.
Oberlin College, c. m., Oberlin, President J. H. Barrows.
Ohio Wesleyan University, c. m., Delaware, President Jas. W. Bashboard.
Denison University, '99, Granville, President D. B. Purinton.
University of Cincinnati, '99, Cincinnati, President H. Ayers.
Central High School, c. m., Cleveland, Principal Edward L. Harris.
Hughes High School, '96, Cincinnati, Principal E. W. Coy.
Steele High School, '96, Dayton, Principal Malcolm Booth.
High School, '96, Toledo, Principal C. G. Ballou.
Walnut Hills High School, '99, Cincinnati, Principal J. Remsen Bishop.
Woodward High School, '99, Cincinnati, Principal Geo. W. Harper.
West High School, '00, Cleveland, Principal Theo. H. Johnston.

MICHIGAN.

University of Michigan, c. m., Ann Arbor, President Jas. B. Angell.
Albion College, c. m., Albion, President John P. Ashley.
Central High School, c. m., Grand Rapids, Principal A. J. Volland.
Michigan Military Academy, c. m., Orchard Lake, Superintendent J. S. Rogers.
High School, '95, Kalamazoo, Principal S. O. Hartwell.
East Side High School, '95, Saginaw, Principal E. C. Warriner.
University School, '00, Detroit, Principal Frederick L. Bliss.

INDIANA.

Indiana University, c. m., Bloomington, President Joseph Swain.
Wabash College, c. m., Crawfordsville, President W. P. Kane.
High School, c. m., LaPorte, Superintendent J. W. Knight.
High School, '96, Fort Wayne, Principal C. F. Lane.
Girls' Classical School, '00, Indianapolis, Principal May W. Sewall.
High School, '01, Lafayette.

ILLINOIS.

University of Illinois, c. m., Champaign, President Andrew S. Draper.
 University of Chicago, c. m., Chicago, President Wm. R. Harper.
 Northwestern University, c. m., Evanston, President Henry Wade Rogers.
 Lake Forest University, c. m., Lake Forest, President J. G. K. McClure.
 Knox College, '96, Galesburg, Professor H. E. Griffith.
 High School, c. m., Evanston, Principal Henry L. Boltwood.
 Northwestern Academy, c. m., Evanston, Principal H. E. Fisk.
 Morgan Park Academy, c. m., Morgan Park, Dean W. J. Chase.
 Manual Training School, c. m., Chicago, Director H. H. Belfield.
 Harvard School, c. m., Chicago, Principal John J. Schobinger.
 High School, c. m., Peoria, Superintendent Newton C. Dougherty.
 Lake Forest Academy, c. m., Lake Forest, Principal Conrad Hibbeler.
 North Division High School, '96, Chicago, Principal O. S. Westcott.
 West Division High School, '96, Chicago, Principal C. M. Clayberg.
 Hyde Park High School, '95, Chicago, Principal C. W. French.
 Lake View High School, '96, Chicago, Principal B. F. Buck.
 Englewood High School, '96, Chicago, Principal J. E. Armstrong.
 Ottawa Tp. High School, '96, Ottawa, Principal J. O. Leslie.
 Lyons Tp. High School, '96, La Grange, Principal Cole.
 Lewis Institute, '95, Chicago, Director G. N. Carman.
 Streator Tp. High School, '97, Streator, Principal Alfred Bayliss.
 Bradley Polytechnic Institute, '97, Peoria, Director E. O. Sisson.
 High School, '98, Elgin, Principal Eugene C. Pierce.
 Lake High School, '99, Chicago, Principal Edward F. Stearns.
 Marshall High School, '99, Chicago, Principal Louis J. Block.
 Ferry Hall Seminary, '00, Lake Forest, Principal Sabra L. Sargent.

WISCONSIN.

University of Wisconsin, c. m., Madison, President Chas. K. Adams.
 Beloit College, c. m., Beloit, President Edward D. Eaton.
 Milwaukee-Downer College, '97, Milwaukee, President Ellen C. Sabin.
 Milwaukee Academy, '97, Milwaukee, Principal J. H. Pratt.

MINNESOTA.

University of Minnesota, '96, Minneapolis, President Cyrus Northrup.

IOWA.

State University of Iowa, c. m., Iowa City, President Geo. E. MacLean.
 Cornell College, c. m., Mt. Vernon, President Wm. F. King.
 State Normal School, c. m., Cedar Falls, President Homer H. Seerley.
 Iowa College, '95, Grinnell, President J. H. P. Main.
 High School, '01, Muscatine.

MISSOURI.

University of Missouri, c. m., Columbia, President Richard H. Jesse.
 Washington University, c. m., St. Louis, Chancellor Winfield S. Chaplin.

Drury College, '98, Springfield, President Homer T. Fuller.

Missouri Valley College, '98, Marshall, President Wm. H. Black.

High School, '96, St. Louis, Principal Wm. J. S. Bryan.

Westminster College, '00, Fulton, President John H. MacCracken.

Mexico High School, '00, Mexico, Superintendent D. A. McMillan.

Manual Training High School, '00, Kansas City, Principal G. B. Morrison.

Mary Institute, '00, St. Louis, Principal E. H. Sears.

Kirkwood High School, '00, Kirkwood, Superintendent R. G. Kinkead.

NEBRASKA.

University of Nebraska, '96, Lincoln, President E. Benj. Andrews.

KANSAS.

University of Kansas, '96, Lawrence, Chancellor F. H. Snow.

COLORADO.

University of Colorado, '96, Boulder, President Jas. H. Baker.

Colorado College, '96, Colorado Springs, President W. F. Slocum.

High School No. 1, '96, Denver, Principal Wm. H. Smiley.

OKLAHOMA.

University of Oklahoma, '01, Norman, President David R. Boyd.

Individual Members.

OHIO.

L. H. Jones, '95, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland.

Cady Staley, '95, President Case School, Cleveland.

Henry C. King, '96, Professor in Oberlin College, Oberlin.

MICHIGAN.

Francis W. Kelsey, '95, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Fred N. Scott, '98, Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

INDIANA.

Clarence A. Waldo, '95, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.

Carl Leo Mees, '96, President of Rose Polytechnic, Terre Haute.

J. J. Mills, '99, President of Earlham College, Richmond.

Robert J. Aley, '99, Professor in Indiana University, Bloomington.

Edward Ayers, '99, Superintendent of Schools, Lafayette.

W. W. Parsons, '99, President of the State Normal School, Terre Haute.
Stanley Coulter, '01, Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette.
C. N. Kendall, '01, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis.

ILLINOIS.

Dean S. A. Forbes, University of Illinois, Champaign.
A. V. E. Young, '95, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
Thomas C. Chamberlin, '95, Professor in the University of Chicago, Chicago.
Harry P. Judson, '95, Professor in the University of Chicago, Chicago.
Marion Talbot, '97, Dean of Women, University of Chicago, Chicago.
George E. Fellows, '99, Professor in the University of Chicago, Chicago.
Wm. A. Greeson, '97, Dean of Lewis Institute, Chicago.
Dr. F. W. Gunsaulus, '96, President of Armour Institute, Chicago.
Henry Crew, '99, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
Thomas F. Holgate, '99, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.
J. A. James, Professor in Northwestern University, Evanston.

WISCONSIN.

Edward A. Birge, '96, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.
M. V. O'Shea, '98, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.
John B. Johnson, '99, Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.

MINNESOTA.

George B. Aiton, '97, State Inspector of High Schools, Minneapolis.

MISSOURI.

F. Louis Soldan, '00, Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis.
John R. Kirk, '98, President of the State Normal School, Kirksville.
C. M. Woodward, '99, Professor in Washington University, St. Louis.

KANSAS.

W. M. Davidson, '99, Superintendent of Schools, Topeka.

OFFICERS FOR THE YEAR 1901-1902.

PRESIDENT:

WINFIELD S. CHAPLIN, *Chancellor of Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.*

VICE-PRESIDENTS:

OHIO.

JOHN H. BARROWS, *President of Oberlin University.*
EDWARD L. HARRIS, *Principal of Central High School, Cleveland.*

MICHIGAN.

FRANCIS W. KELSEY, *Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.*
S. O. HARTWELL, *Principal of the Kalamazoo High School.*

INDIANA.

W. P. KANE, *President of Wabash College, Crawfordsville.*
EDWARD AYRES, *Superintendent of Schools, Lafayette.*

MINNESOTA.

W. M. WEST, *Professor in the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.*
F. A. WELD, *President of the Moorhead Normal School.*

IOWA.

GEORGE E. MACLEAN, *President of the University of Iowa.*
HOMER H. SEERLEY, *President of the State Normal School, Cedar Falls.*

COLORADO.

JAMES H. BAKER, *President of the University of Colorado, Boulder.*
W. H. SMILEY, *Principal of High School No. 1, Denver.*

SECRETARY.

F. N. SCOTT, *Professor in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.*

MISSOURI.

R. H. JESSE, *President of the University of Missouri, Columbus.*
J. R. KIRK, *President of the State Normal School, Kirksville.*

ILLINOIS.

WILLIAM R. HARPER, *President of the University of Chicago.*
L. J. BLOCK, *Principal of the Marshall High School, Chicago.*

WISCONSIN.

J. W. STEARNS, *Professor in the University of Wisconsin, Madison.*
ELLEN C. SABIN, *President of Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee.*

NEBRASKA.

E. B. ANDREWS, *President of the University of Nebraska, Lincoln.*
W. L. DAVENPORT, *Principal of the Lincoln High School.*

KANSAS.

F. H. SNOW, *Chancellor of the University of Kansas, Lawrence.*
W. A. DAVIDSON, *Superintendent of Schools, Topeka.*

TREASURER.

GEORGE N. CARMAN, *Director of Lewis Institute, Chicago.*

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

The PRESIDENT, SECRETARY, TREASURER, and
GEORGE B. AITON, *State Inspector of High Schools of Minnesota,*
Minneapolis.

CLARENCE A. WALDO, *Professor in Purdue University, Lafayette,*
Indiana.

EDWARD L. HARRIS, *Principal of Central High School, Cleveland,*
Ohio.

J. E. ARMSTRONG, *Principal of Englewood High School, Chicago.*

REGISTRATION.

The following persons were present at the sixth annual meeting:

Aiton, G. B., Inspector, Minneapolis.
Armstrong, J. E., Principal Englewood High School, Chicago.
Ayles, Edward, Superintendent, Lafayette, Indiana.
Baker, J. H., President University of Colorado.
Ballou, C. G., Principal Toledo High School.
Bedgood, R. K., Principal Lafayette, Indiana, High School.
Belfield, H. H., Director Chicago Manual Training School.
Beman, W. W., Professor, University of Michigan.
Birge, E. A., Dean, University of Wisconsin.
Black, W. H., President Missouri Valley College.
Boltwood, H. L., Principal Evanston, Illinois, High School.
Bryan, W. J. S., Principal St. Louis High School.
Carman, G. N., Director Lewis Institute, Chicago.
Chaplin, W. S., Chancellor Washington University, St. Louis.
Cobb, H. E., Lewis Institute, Chicago.
Coulter, Stanley, Professor, Purdue University.
Davenport, Eugene, Dean, University of Illinois.
Dickinson, Frances, Harvey Medical College, Chicago.
Eigenmann, C. H., Professor, University of Indiana.
Emerson, O. F., Professor, Western Reserve University.
Fellows, George E., Professor, University of Chicago.
Fiske, H. F., Professor, Northwestern University.
Forbes, S. A., Dean, University of Illinois.
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